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ABSTRACT

This document is one in a series of team reports intended to stimulate further dialogue on the subject of international nonformal education from a conceptual and practical point of view. Introductory information is included in chapter 1 and in document SO 008 058. Chapters 2 and 3 define, classify, and analyze the processes of nonformal education and of international interaction. Nonformal education is defined as the education gained in any organized setting apart from a specific school program. Chapter 4 considers the available channels of communication, differentiating between interpersonal and mass media forms. Chapter 5 presents a strategy for developing nonformal education and a case study derived from the introduction of green manuring in rural India. Chapter 6 examines accomplishments of international assistance; identifies trends with respect to the purpose, channels of interaction, and specific programs; identifies shortcomings; and makes suggestions for overcoming limitations. Chapter 7 focuses on the reciprocity of international interaction in nonformal education. Chapter 8 assesses the assumptions underlying past strategies in international interaction and suggests more appropriate strategic approaches for the future. The concluding chapter sums up the strategies of international interaction in nonformal education and offers 69 hypotheses as useful guides to action and as aids to thinking. (DE)

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Program of Studies in Non-formal Education

Team Reports

# Toward a Strategy of International Interaction In Non-formal Education

By George H. Axinn

with

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SP 008 060

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FOREWORD

The Michigan State University Program of Studies in Non-Formal Education, made possible by the Agency for International Development, has two primary objectives: to build a systematic knowledge base about non-formal education, and to apply knowledge through consultation, technical assistance, workshops, and the distribution of useful materials in developing areas of the world.

This series of Teams Reports is directed at the first objective, knowledge building. The series consists of the final statements of nine teams of faculty members and research fellows, each working on a separate aspect of non-formal education for a sustained period of time. The reports range widely over non-formal education. They deal with its history, its categories and strategies, economics, and learning. Other reports make comparisons among country programs, survey case studies, examine the feasibility of designing non-formal education models, look at administrative alternatives and draw plans for participant training in non-formal education.

The teams were cross-disciplinary in composition, representing such areas as economics, labor and industrial relations, political science, public administration, agricultural economics, sociology and education. Altogether, members of the teams produced nearly one hundred working papers, many of which were shared and debated in three series of semi-weekly seminars for all project participants. The working papers, copies of which are available upon request, provide the basic ideas for the reports in this series.

In the interest of the freest possible exploration each team was encouraged to range widely over its domain and to develop its own set of conclusions and recommendations. Coordination was achieved through the common seminars and the exchange of data and experience. A summary volume, pulling together and synthesizing the main thrusts of all the team resports in this series, is being prepared under the editorship of Marvin Grandstaff. Like the working papers, the summary volume will be available for distribution.

In line with our first objective (knowledge building) the papers in this series are conceptual in nature. In the pursuit of knowledge, nowever, we have tried to keep one question steadily before us: what assistance does this knowledge provide to those whose primary concern is with action--the planning and implementing of non-formal education at the level of practice? That question isn't easily answered. At best our knowledge is partial and it needs the experience dimension to make it more complete. For thought and action are not antithetical; they are necessary complements. One of our

hopes is that this series of team reports may help to stimulate further dialogue between those who approach the subject of non-formal education from a conceptual point of view and those whose questions and problems arise in the exigencies of practice.

What is the role of non-formal education in future development planning? As these reports suggest, it is probably great, and will be even greater through future time. The limitations of formal schooling are coming to be better understood. As the Faure report concludes, the school

> *will be less and less in a position to claim the education functions in society as its special prerogative. All sectors--public administration, industry, communications, transportation--must take part in promoting education. Local and national communities are in themselves eminently education institutions.*

The non-formal education component of most societies is strong, indeed frequently vigorous, and fully capable of further development and use. It is estimated that roughly half of the present educational effort in the developing countries is in the non-formal sector. Collectively, these programs exhibit characteristics indispensible to development. For example, they tend to arise in response to immediate needs; they are usually related to action and use; they tend to be short term rather than long; they have a variety of sponsors, both public and private; and they tend to be responsive to local community requirements. More importantly non-formal education shows strong potential for getting at the human condition of those most likely to be excluded from the formal schools, the poor, the isolated, the rural, the illiterate, the unemployed and the under-employed, for being carried on in the context of limited resources, and for being efficient in terms of time and cost.

Clearly, attention given to designing new strategies for the development of this old and promising resource is worthwhile. Through this series we seek to join hands with others who are also attending to the development of non-formal education.

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CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION

This volume is in response to the world-wide interest in non-formal education among organizations concerned with international development assistance, and particularly, it is in response to the interest of the United States Agency for International Development.

Most systematic effort in recent years conducted by individual nations or international agencies to assist development by furthering education has focused on formal education. Since formal organizations were the principal actors in the international development assistance arena, they naturally tended to interact with formal organizations abroad.

However, as the first "development decade" passed and the world proceeded through the second, the interest in non-formal education mounted. The basic concern which brought about this study can be summarized as: What can an "outside" organization do to enhance non-formal education in any society--perhaps causing it to become more effective or more efficient--perhaps assisting it in furthering national development?

At least three factors are associated with this shift in emphasis. First, a general disenchantment with formal education as a universal path to a better life developed among those concerned with international development assistance. Second, there was a rediscovery of the phenomenon that most education is not formal. And, third, there was a reaffirmation that change, learning, and education are related.

The research which is reported here was part of a larger study at Michigan State University, sponsored by the U. S. Agency for International Development, and directed by Dr. Cole Brembeck of the MSU College of Education. This particular segment of that work was carried on by a group of graduate research assistants under the supervision of the senior author, and featured a continuing dialog and series of mini-seminars over a period of approximately 18 months.

Considerable effort of the team was devoted to definition--both of non-formal education and of international interactions. With respect to each of these, the descriptive and categorization phase was followed by an analytic exercise, and ther an attempt to identify strategies.

Thus, after defining and analyzing non-formal education, there is a chapter on strategies of non-formal education. Then some of the history of international interactions is traced, categories of such interactions are established, and there is a section on the strategy of international interactions.

Our summary chapter deals with international interactions in non-formal education, and offers some hypotheses. A lexicon of operational definitions of the key terms concludes this volume.

CHAPTER II - NON-FORMAL EDUCATION: DESCRIPTIVE - THE CATEGORIES

## I. THE NATURE OF EDUCATION

Human life is a series of learning experiences. Education permeates human life. As such, it is an all-pervasive, many-faceted activity not easily subjected to any one standard definition. Here, EDUCATION will refer to that PROCESS by which the accumulated knowledge, skills, attitudes of a SYSTEM are acquired by and transmitted to or within, and exchanged among its members or elements.

## II. CLASSIFICATION

In this chapter an attempt is made to classify education, particularly non-formal education, in order to determine a series of categories. Two quite different perspectives are applied to this end. One focuses on somewhat more traditional approaches to the topic, and tends to define non-formal education largely in terms of what formal education is not. The other takes a radically different point of departure and views education as a function of the intent of teachers and learners.

In order for a system of classification to be useful, it must satisfy the stipulations which prompted its development. Assume, for a moment, that students in a one-door classroom are to be grouped according to ease of escape in case of emergency. To group these students according to hair color, for instance, would be useless categorization.

For the purposes of this chapter, the classification of non-formal education should:

a) serve in organizing existing features and idiosyncracies within the area of non-formal education;

b) facilitate comparative analysis of non-formal learning projects;

c) permit the formulation of strategies for program development within specific categories and sub-groupings; and

d) reflect learning situations within specific country systems.

Given the assumptions that education is comprised of discrete sub-components and that submitting the dynamic process of education to classification does not destroy its nature, the classification must fulfill the purpose for which it was designed. The two approaches to classification given below are based on these assumptions. They offer two different sets of categories resulting from their distinct perspectives. Both of the approaches, however, may contribute to a further understanding of non-formal education, its discrete and related components.

## III. VIEW A - THE CONVENTIONAL CONCEPTION OF THE PROCESS

During the course of societal development, special methods have evolved or been developed for knowledge, skills, and attitude transmission.[1] Educational experience is traditionally considered under two broad categories: "in-school" and "out-of-school" education or FORMAL and NON-FORMAL education. This distinction between "in-school" and "out-of-school" learning activities refers to classification by:

1. Delivery Systems - Delivery systems distinguish contexts of knowledge transmission. "Out-of-school" delivery systems can be discriminated further. Some, such as the family, are indigenous, while others, such as the agricultural extension service, are exogeneous. Some are political,

some social, some religious in terms of their institutional character. Some systems are local, while others are regional, national or international.

2. Purpose - It is possible to categorize educational efforts in terms of their purpose. The most generalized distinction is between efforts that have short-term, quite specific purposes (non-formal) and those that have long-term, very general purposes (formal).

3. Pedogogical Character - The terms, "formal" and "non-formal" are also used to designate different styles or modes of pedagogy, with those modes having a high degree of structure being termed "formal," while "non-formal" is assigned to modes that have little pre-planned structure. The flexibility/rigidity of pedagogy is also used as a definer -- flexible → non-formal and rigid → formal.

4. Credentialling and Needs - Finally, the formal/non-formal distinction is employed to distinguish programs that lead to official credentials (formal) from those that are built on linkages to the specific needs of the clients. Put another way, this aspect of the distinction centers on the motivational set of the client and the relationship between his motivation and the educational program. The differentia is between those programs in which the relations is direct (non-formal) and those in which it is indirect.

Within the perspectives of View A, one could propose a taxonomy useful for describing any non-formal education activities. It might include the following component parts:

1. Sponsorship Element (refers to where the non-formal education operation is organizationally given association and legitimation.

(1) Educational (formal school) system
(2) Industry
(3) Religious communities, etc.

2. Mission Element (refers to statements of philosophy, values, purposes and program goals).

(1) Productivity (agricultural or industrial)
(2) Community development (local leadership and social development)
(3) Welfare, etc.

3. Behavioral Change Element (refers to the behavioral end product of the non-formal education experience).

(1) Knowing certain information
(2) Understanding certain processes
(3) Acquisition of certain manual skills, etc.

4. Process (refers to types of communication channels utilized).

(1) Complex channels
  1.1. Print
  1.2. Sound (audio)
  1.3. Visual
  1.4. Audio-visual
(2) Person-to-person channels
  2.1. One-to-one
  2.2. One-to-many
  2.3. Group-to-many
(3) Combinations of channels
  3.1. Radio forum
  3.2. Public exhibition

5. Participants Element (some forms of classification separate the "change agent" or "teacher" from the "clientele" or "recipients"; this category, however, includes all the participants).

(1) Age
(2) Educational Attainment
(3) World of Work
(4) Professional Status

6. Funding Element (source of financial resources).

The categorization system suggested above has a number of consequences. On the one hand, it does have the power to describe and organize what exists in the realm of non-formal education; it does facilitate comparative analysis of systems; it could prove useful in the design of non-formal education strategies; and it could reflect learning situations

within specific systems. On the other hand, it provides no description of the dynamics and complexity of education. Also, consider the dilemma present in the description of a program which is short-term and highly specific ("non-formal"); sponsored by and located in a school ("formal"); highly structured and rigid ("formal"); and formulated in response to client needs and not leading to a credential ("non-formal"). In addition, it contains an implicit bias against formal education as an effective education process in its attempts to clearly distinguish non-formal education from formal education. An alternative view is suggested which might provide the same positive consequences and remove the problems resulting from View A.

## IV. VIEW B - THE DYNAMICS OF INTENT OF THE PROCESS

Many alternate ways of categorization, all of which distort valid insight into the nature of the process of education, share one common denominator: they attempt to fit all phenomena into static, limited niches. What is needed, perhaps, is a radical reconsideration of EDUCATION -- to use the term in its most inclusive sense. In this conceptualization, education cannot be simply viewed as either formal or non-formal without taking into account the essence of the process as a function of the intent of teachers and learners.

EDUCATION is a process. By process we mean a mixture of events and relationships which is constantly in motion, constantly changing, constantly interacting and continuous.

For the process of EDUCATION to exist it is necessary that three phenomena (or ingredients) exist in a relationship. If these phenomena exist, EDUCATION will inevitably occur. The three are Learnings, Teachers, and Learners. All other ingredients of EDUCATION can be discovered

through an analysis of the characteristics of the relationships among these three essential phenomena.

Learnings may be defined as the substance of EDUCATION, the means that are transacted in the process. For the purposes of this conceptualization it is convenient to consider Learnings as either Organized or Unorganized. Organized Learnings are those contained in a rational framework. Unorganized Learnings are those having no rational connections. Teachers are objects, events, individuals, or systems that dispense Learnings. Teachers are either Intentional or Unintentional. An Intentional Teacher is one that dispenses Organized Learnings for a purpose. An Unintentional Teacher is one that dispenses Unorganized Learnings and has no purpose for dispensation. Learners are individuals or systems that acquire Learnings. Learners are of two types: Unintentional -- those that acquire Learnings and exhibit or express no purpose for acquisition, and Intentional -- those that acquire Learnings for the purpose of fulfilling a spiritual, intellectual or physical need.

The most practical base we have been able to develop for categorizing thus far is that of the intent of the learners and teachers. For any particular educational activity, if the learners are involved because they intend to learn something, and if the teachers are involved because they intend to help the learners learn something, then we would call it formal or non-formal education. Formal education would refer to the education gained in the structured school setting of any particular country. Non-formal education would be the education gained in any organized setting which took place apart from the specific school program. If either the teachers or the learners are participating for some other reason, other than the intention of teaching or learning, then we call it in-formal

education. If neither the teachers nor the learners are involved by intent, then we call it batic (one could also label it incidental).

This paradigm illustrates:

| Systems: "Teacher" Perspective / "Learner" Perspective | Intended | Unintended |
|---|---|---|
| Intended | A<br>Formal (school)<br>Non-formal (Out-of-school) | C<br>In-formal |
| Unintended | B<br>In-formal | D<br>Batic (Incidental) |

The paradigm allows us to make clear divisions between the types of contexts in which EDUCATION occurs. Box D encompasses all instances in which Unorganized Learnings are transacted by chance. An example of this context is stubbing one's toe on a rock. The rock is the teacher, the individual involved is the Learner, and the Learnings can include rock plus impact of toe equals pain. Box B includes all situations in which Intended Organized Learnings are transacted by chance. For instance, one awakens an hour early without realizing it, turns on the radio expecting news but instead hears a farm program dealing with the application of fertilizer. The teacher is the individual and/or system responsible for the broadcasting of the program, the Learner is the early riser and the Learning is fertilizer application. Box C represents all occurrences in which Unorganized Learnings are transacted because of a Learner's intent to experience them, for example, a scientist engaging in research. Box A encompasses all instances in which Organized Learnings are transacted

because of a Teacher's intent to dispense them and a Learner's intent to acquire them, for example, an individual reading a book.

The paradigm is especially useful as it describes the origins and development of EDUCATION into its current varied forms. At a theoretical point in time all EDUCATION occurred in the context of Box D, all Learnings were Unorganized and all Learners and Teachers were Unintentional. As Learnings became realized by Learners, some Learnings became Organized and some Learners became aware that Unorganized Teachers were a source of material for the development of Organized Learnings. With this realization, Boxes A, B and C became possible.

In general, we can say that the history of EDUCATION has shown a constant decrease in the total of Unorganized Learnings, a constant increase in the total of Organized Learnings, and a realization of the efficiency of Organized Learnings leading to a constant increase of Intentional Teachers and Learners.

The paradigm is also of much utility in that it illustrates the all-encompassing and complex nature of EDUCATION. There are no other possible contexts of EDUCATION. In any situation that includes at least one awake individual EDUCATION is occurring at least in the context of Box D. The Boxes in the paradigm can appear to overlap at one point in time in the life of any given individual, and it is difficult, if not impossible, for an observer to determine which context of EDUCATION is occurring. Is the individual reading the book in front of him (Box A), or is he distracted by the news on the radio (Box B), or does he wonder if it is raining (Box C), or is he experiencing pain because his cramped position caused his leg to fall asleep (Box D)?

Moving on to the application of this alternate view of education, the utility of this perspective becomes readily apparent. It allows us to ask Strategic Questions about each activity in each category. Depending on the nature of answers to these strategic questions, many sub-categories may be established within each of the four major categories above. The key strategic questions appear to be these?

1. What is the Doctrine or Mission? (major purposes, broad goals, rationale for existence)

2. What is the Organization and Structure? (roles, leadership, differential patterns, etc.)

3. What are the Resources? (human, financial, sponsorship, facilities, etc.)

4. What is (are) the Program(s)?

   a. Operating Goals (why)

   b. Participation (who, what mix)

   c. Content (what learnings)

   d. Process (how mediated)

All manner of strategic variations in the above four major dimensions of educational activity may be made, and within any given activity, there may be great variation in the Program dimensions. Judgments about the relative value of these variations, either as strategy in the planning stage, or as evaluation after operations begin may be reached on the basis of answers to two additional questions:

5. What will (did) the particular activity cost? (money and other social costs)

6. What impact will (did) the particular activity have? (in terms of doctrine (1.) or in terms of Program Goals (4.a.)

This should serve to indicate the nature of the type of inquiry to be applied to categories of this type which in turn yield activity-specific strategies for implementation of "non-formal" or "formal" educational programs as these have been defined here.

## V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Throughout this section, categories for classifying educational phenomena have been discussed, and two quite different approaches have been outlined in detail. While not categorically denying the worth of the first approach, the thesis has been presented that there is much value in the second.

Approach B illustrates the pervasiveness of education in people's lives, as well as the complexity of the educational process. For all practical purposes, those who deal with the development of educational strategies are limited to dealing with the contexts of Boxes A and B. It is only Organized Learnings that can be manipulated since even environmental manipulation implies intent and some form of organization. As a result, for those who seek to design educational strategies, the context of Box A is the most likely place to begin as it offers the greatest prospect for effective control. What is added here is the fact that the other contexts do exist and limit the control of processes and render it less than perfect or complete. The crucial point is that all contexts may be considered when designing strategies directed to the context of Box A or Box B.

In terms of whether a given instance of EDUCATION is formal or non-formal, our reconsideration suggests that this question is of secondary importance. Of primary concern is the discovery of the proper context of EDUCATION in which the characteristics of a particular educational

instance belong. Strategy development is focused on discovering instances of EDUCATION that fall in the context of Box A or Box B.

If one accepts the reconsideration of EDUCATION as presented in this paper, not only is one freed from an implicit bias against formal education, but one is also freed from what we believe to be a false and misleading dichotomy. By centering attention on the contexts of Boxes A and B, one can no longer ignore the potential of formal education -- which figures importantly as a key category in the educational paradigm. Finally, our reconsideration gives us guidance in dealing with yet another problem that has arisen in the discussion of strategies -- namely the question of whether to emphasize the Teacher or the Learner. It is our view that both are essential to the educational process and that the importance of neither can be dismissed if the vital and central dynamic of that process is to be appreciated and preserved, let alone improved.

1. Particular aspects of these methods have been noted and discussed by writers such as: Redfield (1943); Watkins (1943); Malinowski (1943); Herskovits (1956); Kneller (1965); Silberman (1970); and Cremin (1970).

CHAPTER III - NON-FORMAL EDUCATION: ANALYTIC

This chapter reviews some of the conceptual bases on which an effective Non-Formal Education (NFE) program can be constructed. The source of these concepts has been literature in development theory and learning theory.[1] The concepts are offered in the form of hypotheses.

Concerning Goals of NFE Programs:

1. If the objectives of a NFE program are carefully ascertained, then the planning and developing of the program is simplified and made easier.

2. The less ambitious a new NFE program is, the more likely it is to succeed.

3. The extent to which the goals of any NFE program will be achieved tends to be directly related to the extent to which various cultural factors are taken into consideration in planning the program.[2]

4. The extent to which the goals of any NFE program will be achieved tends to be directly related to the extent to which they are clearly understood by those responsible for carrying out the program.

5. The extent to which the goals of any NFE program will be achieved tends to be directly related to the extent to which those at whom the program is directed have participated (may be by representation) in establishing the goals.

6. The extent to which the goals of any NFE program will be achieved tends to be directly related to the extent to which the planning process is continuous. To plan is to study the past and the present in order to forecast the future; and in light of that forecast, to determine alternative courses of action, and then to decide what is to be done, when it is to be done, where it is to be done, how it is to be done, and by whom it is to be done. (F. Reeves)

7. The extent to which the goals of any NFE program will be achieved tends to be inversely related to the number of those goals.

8. If an educational organization's goals include that all members define and achieve their own goals; diffusion of responsibility, authority and initiative; leadership development; and the continual search for ways to grow as human beings; then the organization will be effective.[3]

Concerning Participants in NFE Programs:

1. Teachers can be divided into two types: (1) those who are effective in facilitating attitude integration and knowledge/skill attainment and (2) those who are effective in dispensing knowledge/skills so that learners may attain them.

2. The willingness and ability of any group to accept change tends to be directly related to the volume of their communication with the outside world.[4]

3. As an individual's confidence in his ability to change increases, his avoidance of change decreases.[5]

Concerning Methods Used in NFE Programs:

1. Effective teaching begins with ascertaining the initial situation of the learner, then devising strategies of instruction based on this information.[6]

2. If the obstacles constraining the success of an educational program are known, and if the resources available to the program are known, then the resources can be manipulated in ways so that the obstacles will be surmounted.

3. If an educational program develops positive attitudes toward the knowledge and/or skill, the learning of which is the goal of the program, either prior to or concurrently with the learning of the knowledge and/or skill, then the program is more likely to be effective.

4. If learners in an education program have positive attitudes toward the knowledge/skill they are to attain, then a facilitating teacher or a dispensing teacher can provide effective education.

5. If learners in an education program do not have positive attitudes toward the knowledge/skill they are to attain, then a facilitating teacher can provide a more effective education.

6. If the atmosphere surrounding a facilitating teacher is not threatening to personal behavioral innovations; keeps external threats to learning at a minimum; promotes a student's natural potentialities for learning, learning by doing, student responsibility for learning, self-initiated learning, student self-evaluation, learning how to learn; and maintains high levels of expectation for students and teachers;[7] then NFE dealing with attitude integration and attainment of knowledge/skill can be very effective.

7. If the atmosphere surrounding a dispensing teacher allows a student to carry on the behavior he is to learn; rewards the student, internally and externally, for carrying on that behavior; motivates the student to learn; stimulates the student to learn new ways of learning; provides guidance in the student's attempts to carry on his new behaviors; and

provides appropriate materials with which to learn;[8] then NFE dealing with acquisition of knowledge and/or skills can be very effective.

8. If a potential learner's environment motivates him to learn a knowledge/skill, then learning tends to be more effective.

9. The design of instructional strategies is dependent upon the internal condition of the learner, the external conditions surrounding the learner, and the nature of the content to be mastered. The nature of the content will determine the types of learning it is necessary to evoke, the internal condition of the learner determines what prerequisites will have to be mastered before the particular learning can be evoked, and the external conditions will have to be manipulated so the prerequisites plus the learning aimed at can be achieved. (For a comprehensive treatment of this subject see Rober Gagné, *The Conditions of Learning*.)[9]

10. Sensitivity training can increase one's confidence in one's ability to deal with change.[10]

11. If a NFE program is of the more organized variety, then the following teaching methods are useful in producing effective education:

A. Elicit and clarify learners' purposes for learning.

B. Spend more time on providing learning resources than preparing lesson plans.

C. Present the teacher as a learning resource.

D. Teacher empathizes with learners on both emotional and intellectual levels.

E. Teacher evolves from group leader to group participant.

F. Teacher recognizes and accepts his own limitations.

G. Use real problems to stir learner motivation.

H. Use dialogical instruction.

I. Paying attention to individual student needs.

J. Development and use of effective feedback devices.

K. Demonstration techniques.

L. Simulation.

M. Programmed instruction.

N. Teacher-student contacts.

12. If the NFE program involves teachers actively facilitating or dispensing learning to learners, then group learning, problem solving and discussion techniques may be extremely effective in promoting effective education.[11]

13. If a NFE program involves group learning through discussion, then the following hypotheses may form a basis for effective educational practice:

A. If the group is to be used effectively as a medium of change, these people who are to be changed and those who are to exert influence for change must have a strong sense of belonging to the same group.

B. The more attractive a group is to its members the greater is the influence that the group can exert on its members.

C. In attempts to change attitudes, values, or behavior, the more relevant they are to the basis of attraction to the group, the greater they will be in the influence that the group can exert upon them.

D. The greater the prestige of a group member in the eyes of the other members, the greater the influence he can exert.

E. Efforts to change individuals or subparts of a group which, if successful, would have the result of making them deviate from the norms of the group will encounter strong resistance.

F. Strong pressure for changes in the group can be established by creating a shared perception by members of the need for change, thus making the source of pressure for change lie within the group.

G. Information relating to the need for change, plans for change, and consequences of change should be shared by all relevant people in the group.

H. Changes in one part of a group produce strain in other related parts which can be reduced only be eliminating the change or by bringing about readjustments in the related parts.[12]

14. The effectiveness of individual change agents in a NFE program tends to vary inversely with the social distance between the change agent and the members of his target system (students). Social distance includes differences in language, education, economic level, age, family status, physical distance, etc.[13]

15. The success of a NFE program tends to vary directly with the extent to which its "teachers" are local persons selected by the group to be served.

16. The success of a first-line NFE "teacher" tends to be directly related to the extent to which his clientele have confidence in him.

17. The success of a NFE program tends to be directly related to the extent of personal contact between the participants in the NFE program and the staff of the NFE program.

18. If learners become teachers of other learners,[14] than a NFE education program is likely to be both effective and efficient.

19. If strong rewards for the completion of NFE programs are provided, then these programs tend to be effective.[15]

Concerning the Learning Content of NFE Programs:

1. The success of a NFE program tends to be directly related to the extent to which:

A. the benefits to participants are high;

B. the cost to participants is low;

C. program content is relatively simple;

D. the benefits to participants is immediate; and

E. the program content may be tested by individual participants on a trial basis prior to complete commitment.

2. Learning can be divided into three general areas: (1) integration of attitudes (feeling behavior); (2) attainment of knowledges (thinking behavior); and (3) acquisition of abilities and skills (action behavior).

Concerning Evaluation of NFE Programs:

1. If as a result of an educational program desired changes in behavior (thinking, feeling, and/or action) are observed over a period of time, then the program may be described as effective in achieving its goals.

2. If one NFE program has equal impact with another NFE program, but has lower cost, it may be said to be more efficient.

Concerning Organization and Structure of NFE Programs:

1. If an administrator of NFE activity trusts those who work under him, is acceptant toward new ideas, avoids behind the scenes manipulation, is honest in his dealing with others, uses group problem-solving techniques, carries out his delegated responsibilities and encourages recognition and working out of tensions; then he tends to be an effective administrator.[16]

2. In planning and operationalizing NFE programs, the use of already existing organizational structures rather than creation of new structures may reduce resistance.[17]

3. If a system is to have several different NFE programs working within it, then efficiency and effectiveness may be increased if a central coordinating agency is established.[18]

4. If educational policies are kept flexible, then appropriate response to new situations in an ever-changing world will be more likely.[19]

Planning of Non-Formal Education

The cycle of NFE program development may include such aspects as:

- situational analysis
- identification of problems (opportunities)
- establishment of goals (targets)
- analysis of barriers (why haven't goals been achieved already?)
- finding appropriate message
- designating audience(s) for each message
- selecting best combination of channels to carry message(s) to audience(s)
- designating treatments for each message which will achieve the greatest impact
- operating (sending appropriately treated messages via selected channels to designated audience(s)
- evaluating extent to which goals have been achieved
- situational analysis
- identification of problems (opportunities)
- etc.... THE PROCESS IS CONTINUOUS

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1. For example, Paul Freire, "The Adult Literacy Process as Cultural Action for Freedom," *Harvard Educational Review*, 40 (May, 1970), 205-225; Paulo Freire, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, trans. by Myra B. Ramos (New York: Herder and Herder, 1970); Everett Reimer, *School is Dead: Alternatives in Education*, (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., 1971); and Carl Rogers, *Freedom to Learn*, (Columbus, Ohio: Charles Merrill Publishing Co., 1969).

2. George H. Axinn and Sudhakar S. Thorat, *Modernizing World Agriculture: A Comparative Study of Agricultural Extension Education Systems*, (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1972), Chapter 15.

3. Freire, *Pedagogy*, pp. 167-186; Rogers, *Freedom to Learn*, pp. 203, 207-208, 304.

4. Axinn and Thorat, *Modernizing World Agriculture*, Chapter 15.

5. Douglas Heath, *Humanizing Schools: New Directions, New Decisions*, (New York: Hayden Book Co., 1971), p. 134.

6. Robert Gagné, *The Conditions of Learning*, (2nd ed., New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970), pp. 23, 28.

7. Denis Goulet, *The Cruel Choice*, (New York: Atheneum, 1971), p. 181; Heath, *Humanizing Schools*, p. 153; and Rogers, *Freedom to Learn*, pp. 23-24, 52, 157-163.

8. Ralph W. Tyler, "The Knowledge Explosion: Implications for Secondary Education," in *Controversy in American Education*, ed. by Harold Full, (New York: Macmillan, 1967), pp. 112-113.

9. Gagné, *The Conditions of Learning*, pp. 23, 28.

10. Winston Oberg, "Sensitivity Training and Management," *Journal of MSU Business Topics*, 17 (Autumn, 1969); and Rogers, *Freedom to Learn*, pp. 130-143, 306.

11. Dorwin Cartwright, "Achieving Change in People: Some Applications of Group Dynamic Theory," *Human Relations*, 4 (1951), 385; Gagné, *Conditions of Learning*, pp. 29-30; David Kline, in "The Forum," *World Education Reports*, I (Spring, 1972), 10; Jack Mezirow, "Educating Adults in Family Planning," *World Education Issues*, No. 1, Periodic Paper (September, 1972), 1, 4; Rogers, *Freedom to Learn*, p. 24.

12. Cartwright, "Applications of Group Dynamic Theory," pp. 388-391.

13. Axinn and Thorat, *Modernizing World Agriculture*, Chapter 15.

14. V. M. Dandekar, "Effectiveness in Agricultural Planning," *A.D.C. Teaching Forum, Development Processes and Planning*, (New York: The Agricultural Development Council, No. 19, July, 1972), p. 3; Heath, *Humanizing Schools*, p. 190.

15. Marvin Grandstaff, "Non-Formal Education and an Expanded Conception of Development," Project on Non-Formal Education, Agency for International Development, Michigan State University, 1973, p. 35. (Mimeo.)

16. Rogers, *Freedom to Learn*, pp. 209-212.

17. Dandekar, "Agricultural Planning," pp. 2-3; Mezirow, "Educating Adults," pp. 6-7.

18. Mezirow, "Educating Adults," pp. 6-7.

19. *Ibid.*, p. 135.

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CHAPTER IV - NON-FORMAL EDUCATION: THE PROCESS

The process of education hinges on communication. Education, formal or informal, occurs as a result of communication. In fact, non-formal education appears to broaden the radius of educational communication considerably.

Communication is the process by which a message is sent from the source to the receiver. This process has been described in many ways.[1] One such way involves five elements: source, message, treatment, channel, receiver, and effect, including feedback which is relaying the results back to the source.

1. The source refers to the originator of the message--the person or group who perceives the audience and conceives a possible communication with that audience.

2. The message is the intent which is being passed from the source to the receiver. It is the essential purpose for the communication.

3. Treatment of this message refers to its content; to the way it is shaped and delivered, influenced by the selection of the channel(s).

4. Channel refers to the variety of methods used in this information transfer. It has been described as follows:

> *A channel is any tool which can be used by a communicator to transmit the message to the audience. It includes such things as face-to-face visiting, a meeting, a tour, a demonstration, a newspaper, a magazine, a printed folder, a poster, an exhibition, a radio program, a telephone.*[2]

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5. The receiver refers to the audience--the person(s) or group who are the intended recipients of the message.

6. An innovation is considered to be an idea which is perceived as new in the eyes of the receivers. In many situations, the message's intent will be to introduce an innovation, or encourage its use. The receiver adoption of this innovation would be interpreted as a change in his behavior, a feedback signal that the message was received and understood. But a change in receiver knowledge about or feelings about the innovation would also constitute feedback, and be a similar indication to the sender.

It has been said that communication is essential for social change.[3]

Quantitatively, the amount and type of communication which occurs both within a society and from outside a society is highly associated with the amount of change which occurs.

Strategy

Communication strategy refers to planning which organizes the elements of the communication process so that messages may be transferred as effectively and efficiently as possible. Effectiveness refers to the impact of the message upon the receivers, including motivating or persuasive qualities. Efficiency includes the most effectiveness for the most people with the least cost.

Communication strategy, pertaining to non-formal education, is relevant on two counts. First, the message and its treatment may be far more varied than has been the case with formal education. Second, message treatment and channel selection are more extensive due to increased technology and a wider knowledge of communication techniques.

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Needed: A Need

The goal of non-formal education is related to the need of the ultimate receivers and the purpose for whatever intervention will occur. The strategic path illustration (see Chapter V) points out that the overall objective is to reach a desirable end state different from the present one. The objective of communication is to carry the message to the receivers, in order to achieve that goal.

Zeroing-In on Obstacles

Recognition of a perceived need leads to a study of obstacles preventing that need from being overcome. One could start by asking the following question:

> *Why is it that any particular goal has not already been achieved? The answer to this question...will identify barriers which must be overcome, or destroyed, or avoided, or penetrated, or evaded.*[4]

Obstacles include all factors which have previously prevented the need frombeing remedied. The strategic path points out both internal and external obstacles.

The strategic path also notes resources, both existing and potential. If the communication objective utilizes these resources, then the task of overcoming the obstacles could possibly be accomplished more effectively and efficiently.

Therefore, an early stage in communication strategy may be the identification of obstacles and resources. These may be uncovered using the "explore and discover" technique. The receivers, or audience, may be viewed as obstacles or resources, depending on their initial receptivity to the message. If the reaction is favorable, then the audience may

constitute a resource. If there is opposition, then the audience may function more as an obstacle to be overcome.

## You Gotta Know the Territory--Inside Out

The audience may include a large group, or may be limited to one or two individuals. Regardless of size, numerous factors may affect the reception of a message. Members of any social system are influenced by cultural and subcultural beliefs. A variety of group and role positions lie within these overriding beliefs. Previous experiences, whether personally obtained or passed along, may also affect the receiver. Formal and non-formal education constitute only a portion of these experiences.

If the character of the audience is taken into account in structuring the message, then the receptivity of that message will be heightened. If these factors are not taken into account, then misunderstandings may result. Analysis of these factors may include the following considerations.

## The Culture

The elements comprising any one culture differ in some respects from others.[5] Underlying values may be studied. An early step in designing a communication strategy is to determine what is culturally acceptable to the receivers.

It may prove highly profitable to study subcultures as well. Certain subcultures have distinctive traits which tend to influence the reception of the message.[6]

A culture consists of many groups. Groups, viewed in a communication sense, are those individuals who hold similar points of view and tend to interact with each other--thereby reinforcing those opinions.[7] This

grouping process may act like an invisible barrier within villages.[8]

Role plays an important part in the structure of an audience. For example, one woman may be, at different times in the same day, mother, cleaning woman, cook, citizen and purchasing agent.[9] Each role might be best reached by a different message design, or a completely different communication strategy.

The rationale underlying the study of cultures, groups and roles is that these all aid in understanding the attitudes and perceptions of the receiver. Accurate recognition of such attitudes can be difficult. In addition, culturally imposed attitudes may be modified by experiences, either personal or passed on. The physical environment may also affect attitudes.

Because of their attitudes, receivers may be consciously or unconsciously selective in their message exposure, perception, and retention. If messages are constructed according to existing attitudes, then the possibility of more accurate reception is also increased. This is part of the importance of feedback, that is, determining how much of the message has actually been received and remembered.

Literacy--An Educational Experience

Functional literacy is one criterion of formal education. However, literacy seems to have a greater effect than just providing the skills necessary to follow the newspaper or read an instruction booklet. It appears to influence the entire thought process of the individual.[10]

Illiteracy still affects approximately one-third of the world's adults.[11] Literates and illiterates often have to communicate with each other. This barrier is sometimes not recognized or considered. If a

common frame of reference between these two groups is found, then the literacy factor is reduced in importance. This is similar in part, to a person with normal vision who desires a direct a colorblind person across the street according to the traffic lights. The frame of reference is the consistent placement of the colors within the light, not the colors themselves.

Literacy is a factor in the treatment of the message--and might be regarded as a resource in this regard. If enough of the receivers are literate, then the channels used to transmit the message may include a variety of printed material. On the other hand, if the receivers are illiterate, then the communication channels may, by necessity, be more limited to verbal or pictorial means.

Getting to Know the Territory--Outside In

External obstacles to the communication process concern items which may often be more readily identified than internal obstacles. Equipment is an example. People cannot be reached via television if they have not access to a T.V. receiving set, or if the station transmitter is too far away to receive, or if they have no electricity for their sets. Such barriers might be classified as economic: if more funds were available, sets could be purchased. Other obstacles might be physical; if the mountain range were not between the transmitter and the receiving sets the signal might reach. Or physical in another sense, if hydroelectric power were available, electricity would also be available.

Political barriers might also exist. Certain rules might forbid the transmission of certain messages. Or, because of the general political climate, the audience might be hesitant to use certain innovations to remedy their needs.

Social obstacles range from simple to complex. If the obstacle were the unsuccessful attempt to reach homemakers in the evening, when they are too involved preparing the evening meal to listen to a broadcast, then a simple solution would be broadcasting at a more convenient time.

Two Results of Explore and Discover

The discovery of obstacles is not the only purpose of exploration. Resources are to be noted as well, particularly those items or attitudes which could aid the communication process. The existing communication channels may be such resources. If the current channels are utilized, then the cost of the message might be decreased, and the credibility of the message itself may be heightened.

One opportunity of the explore and discover procedure is to note why the existing resources have not been fully utilized. If numerous transistor radios are to be found in a village, for example, but there is no battery supplier, then the radios will eventually be useless.

Channel Impact

Channels may be divided into two general classes, one, where the mass media interposes a "mechanical" means between the source and the receiver, and two, interpersonal communication which implies direct interaction between at least two people.

It has been suggested that the mass media is most useful in creating awareness of an innovation, while interpersonal means tend to induce the actual adoption of that innovation. This, however, oversimplifies the actual case. There is also a "two-step communication theory" (Lazarfeld) which states that the mass media provide information for opinion leaders, who, in turn, inform others. But this has come to be seen as too

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generalized and simplistic. The "step" view is now often viewed as a process, where the number of steps may change from one to many, but where the communication is continuous.

One advantage of interpersonal communication is that feedback can be immediate; hence, misunderstandings may be decreased or abbreviated. However, the mass media have the advantage in reaching a far larger audience, in less time, at lower cost, and with a higher probability of accuracy than is possible with most other communication channels.

In short, a comparison between interpersonal and mass communication is as follows:

| | Interpersonal | Mass |
|---|---|---|
| Reaching a larger audience | | |
| Speed | Slow | High |
| Cost per individual reached | High | Low |
| Influence on individual | | |
| Ability to attract attention | High | Low |
| Accuracy of message communicated | Low | High |
| Probability of selective screening | Relatively Low | High |
| Clarity of content | High | Moderate to Low |
| Feedback | | |
| Direction of message flow | Two-Way | One-Way |
| Speed of feedback | High | Low |
| Accuracy of feedback | High | Low |

A study of the audience should identify available channels for communication. If few radios exist in one location, then radio is probably not the best channel to select. If literacy is low, then newspapers are not recommended. In all situations, however, the number of channels should not be limited to one, or two, or even more.

The more communication channels in parallel between a communicator (non-formal education teacher) and his audience (students) the greater the chance that any particular message sent by the communicator will be received by the audience.[12]

The more communication channels in series between a communicator (agricultural extension staff) and his audience (farmers) the less the chance that any particular message sent by the communicator will be received by the audience.[13]

Media Strategy

A first step in channel selection is the examination of available channels and resources. Itemizing this situation may be easier with the aid of a work-sheet similar to that listed by Wilbur Schramm in the appendix to his book *Mass Media and National Development*.

Several channels may be combined. Radio forums have proved highly successful in many areas of the world. Radio forums illustrate the use of a combination of channels. Lectures are delivered via radio, but question sheets and calendars of events are often distributed via the newspaper or direct mail. Postal service is also used to provide a question-and-answer feedback between the broadcaster and the audience. Interpersonal interaction is prevalent as the group gathers to listen to the broadcast.

Some propositions which have been helpful in selecting channels for non-formal education follow:[14]

The effectiveness of communication between any sender and receiver tends to vary directly with the fidelity of the channels employed.

The effectiveness of communication between any sender and receiver tends to vary directly with the capacity of the channels employed.

The effectiveness of communication between any sender and receiver tends to vary directly with the degree to which treatments are constructed with symbols which have the same meaning for both the sender and the receiver.

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The effectiveness of communication between any sender and receiver tends to vary directly with the extent to which that receiver (audience) attends to the channel(s) being utilized.

The effectiveness of communication between any sender and receiver tends to vary directly with the receiving skill of the receiver (audience) in regard to the particular channel(s) utilized.

The effectiveness of communication between any sender and any particular receiver tends to vary inversely with the number of other receivers who also constitute the audience for that particular communication.

The effectiveness of communication between any sender and audience tends to vary inversely with the amount of time which lapses between origination of the treatment by the communicator and the perception of the treatment by that audience.

The effectiveness of communication between any sender and audience tends to vary directly with the extent to which that audience associates the channel(s) used as channel(s) typically used by persons of status equal to or higher than its own.

Adoption

The goal of non-formal education is to produce an effect--a desired change. Producing this change often requires adopting new ideas (or ideas perceived as new by the receiver). The adoption procedure has been divided into five stages, awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption. The communication process may be vital in any or all of these stages.[15]

An innovation is usually accepted by a social system by smaller units, individuals or groups. First, only a few try out the innovation. If the attributes of the innovation are perceived as successful by the others, then more will try it.

One application here, to non-formal education, is in the realm of motivation. Unlike formal education, where the inducement has not been in the actual subject matter but in the far-ranging rewards obtained after completion of such schooling, non-formal education seems to fall into the "what you see is what you get" category. This means, that if the usefulness of such education is not obvious, the motivation may be lacking.

* * * * *

This section has considered the available channels of communication, differentiating between interpersonal and mass media forms. Interpersonal communication has a traditional background, but, for a fast changing world, it may be too slow and inaccurate. The reach of the mass media channels usually far surpass other media, but the mystery of the effect upon the audience make it a more uncertain means to employ.

The media strategy, as pertaining to non-formal education, often may consist of a number of channels, utilized in different stages. In part, this is one purpose of following a strategic path--analyzing the possible methods, choosing the best one, testing it, and then, either finding success, or using another channel or set of channels, or adding addtional channels to carry the message.

The message treatment is, in part, determined by the channels selected. Treatment is limited only by the creativity of the non-formal educator.

Coordination of message, treatment, channel(s), and audience is the heart of communication strategy.

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1. Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver, *Mathematical Theory of Communication*, (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1949); Wilbur Schramm, *Mass Media and National Development*, (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1964); David K. Berlo, *The Process of Communication*, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960); Hadley Read, *Communication Methods for All Media*, (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1972); George Axinn, "A Strategy of Communication, and The Development Process," paper presented in November, 1969, Society for International Development, New Delhi, India.

2. George Axinn, "A Conceptual Framework for the Analysis of Communication in Rural Social Systems," paper presented on August 26, 1968, at the Rural Sociological Society in Boston, Massachusetts.

3. Everett Rogers, *Communication of Innovations*, (New York: Free Press, 1971), p. 6.

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9. Edgar Crane, *Marketing Communications*, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965), p. 192.

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11. John Scupham, *The Revolution in Communications*, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1970), p. 58.

12. George H. Axinn and Sudhakar S. Thorat, *Modernizing World Agriculture: A Comparative Study of Agricultural Extension Education Systems*, (New York: Praeger Publishers, Inc., 1972), p. 191.

13. *Ibid.*, p. 191

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15. Rogers, *Modernization Among Peasants*, pp. 19-40.

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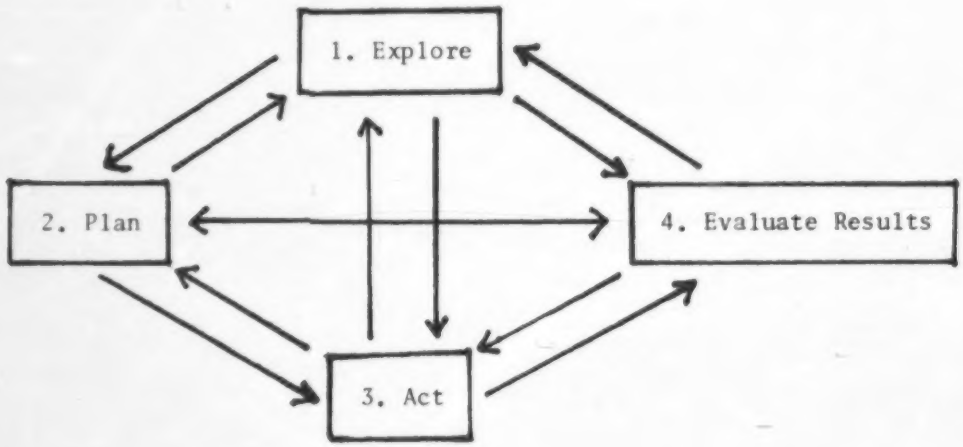
CHAPTER V - NON-FORMAL EDUCATION: STRATEGIES

This chapter will propose a strategic path to be used in the development of specific NFE strategies. This strategic path can be used successfully in most forms of NFE in development.

The general approach offered can be represented schematically as follows:




Words have been assigned particular meanings in this diagram. The first step in strategy is to Explore the situation which will encompass the particular NFE program to be developed. Pertinent objectives of Exploration deal with determination of the nature of the problem to be solved and the reasons for the existence of the problem. Exploration continues throughout program development, but it ceases to be the dominant

activity after the first step. Later it becomes a supporting activity to the main business at hand in the other steps.

The second step in program development is to Plan a program that is projected as accurately as possible to solve the problems determined from the explored situation. As Plans develop and become more specific there is ever greater need for more Exploration to provide the necessary data for planning. There is an interplay of Explore, Plan, Explore, Plan,...

The third step involves putting the modified Plan or Plans into Action. And the fourth step is concerned with Evaluating results. Again there is an interplay among all parts of the path at each step, but at each particular step one part is dominant. For example, the Plan is put into Action. As the Action goes on, the non-formal educator is Evaluating, Planning and Exploring constantly and almost simultaneously in order to produce the maximum effect from his Action.

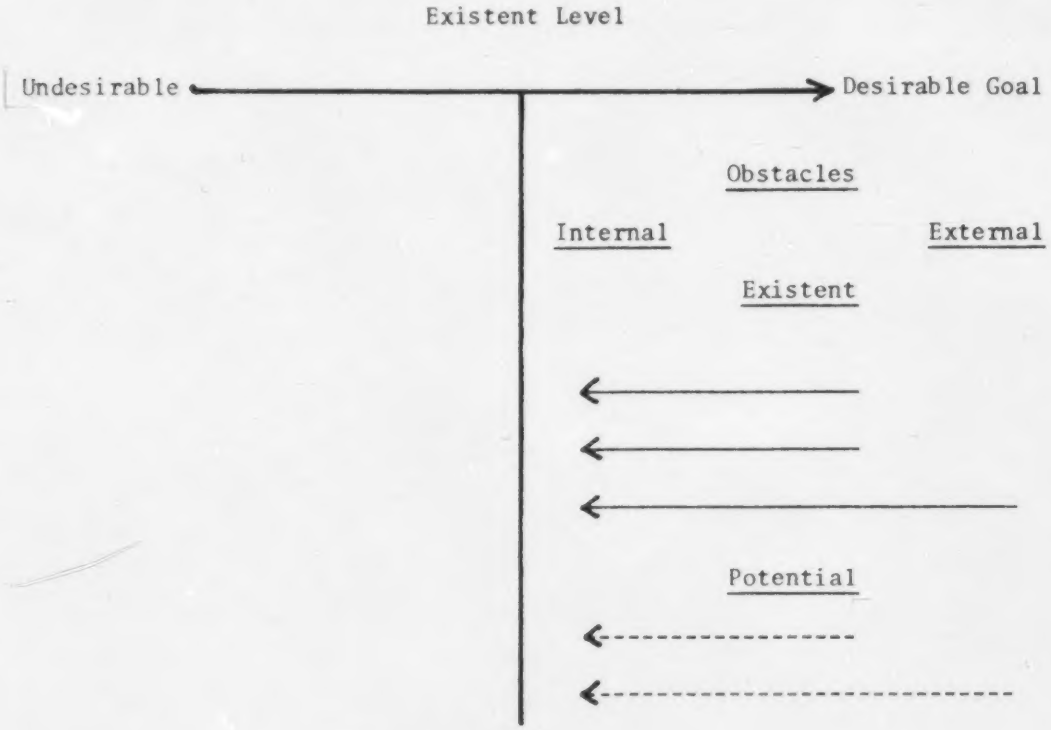
Strategy does not develop only from the data of the immediate present, however. The areas of the circles in the diagram surrounding each strategic step represent an information processing component of strategizing. For example, one does not Explore relying on only present information available to immediate observation or recall. Each step involves processing as much information as possible relevant to the current state of things relevant to the situation encompassing the program.

Finally, the arrows illustrate movement, either intellectual or physical or both, between the various steps one takes in strategy.

The next portion of this chapter attempts to explain procedures and thought-guiding, or even thought-expanding processes that will be useful in moving through the first two phases of the strategic path. Following that, there is an illustration of the use of the strategic path in a case

study of non-formal education in a development project. It attempts to show how what was done in the case can be encompassed in the path, and also how the path could have proposed other approaches to the project in the case study that might have facilitated achievement of the project's goals.

The first step in the path is to explore the Existent Situation. Existent Situation refers to the immediate human and physical environment in which development or change, is to take place. Exploration is accomplished by assessing the Existent Situation and the target group's perception of the situation. The schematic below represents some of the factors to be considered at this stage in following the strategic path.




A development situation is characterized by a continuum that goes from perceived total undesirability to perceived total desirability.

Somewhere on the continuum is the actual situation of the target group (Existent Level). The development problem is to move the Existent Level toward the more desirable situation. The problem is defined by asking why the Existent Level is not at the Desirable Goal.

As the planner studies the development problem, he searches for obstacles that are creating it. Obstacles can be defined as those items, goods, ideas, people, organizations, physical and climatic conditions, etc., or lack of which will hinder motion from the Existent Level toward the Desirable Goal. Obstacles exist both within the Existent Situation (Internal) and outside the situation (External). In addition to Existent Obstacles, there are also Potential Obstacles, i.e., obstacles that may come into existence as the existing obstacles are gradually surmounted, obstacles that are associated with such vaguaries as climatic conditions, or obstacles that may be inherent in the solutions proposed to surmount other obstacles.

An obstacle classification system could be a useful tool for planning development. A convenient way to view development obstacles is to place them in two categories: 1) those that can be affected by man and 2) those which can be considered by man, but cannot be affected by him, e.g., climatic conditions. In planning development it is useful to treat obstacles in both categories, but obstacles of the first type are the primary concern of non-formal education strategy, and so for these, three sub-categories are delineated: 1) obstacles of human behavior, 2) obstacles of material availability, and 3) obstacles of manpower availability. Among these sub-categories non-formal education in development is usaully concerned with obstacles of the first type, for at least one of the goals in any sort of education is behavioral change. Obstacles of Material

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Availability or Manpower Availability are considered by the non-formal education planner as they affect the strategy for accomplishing behavioral change. Below is a chart illustrating this approach to obstacle classification.

Obstacles

| Considered | Affected | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Material Availability | Manpower Availability | Human Behavior |

The second step in the strategic path is to plan a program. In this phase we begin with the first tentative steps of planning and carry through to a plan fully ready to be operationalized. Planning deals with how the resources of an Existent Situation can be manipulated to overcome the obstacles that are creating the problem as discovered in the exploration stage of the path. Resources can be defined as those items, goods, ideas, people, organizations, physical and climatic conditions, etc., that are actually or potentially available within and without the Existent Situation whose use or incorporation within a program will facilitate the surmounting of obstacles.

At this point it will be helpful to complete the picture of a development situation to illustrate the role of resources in developing planning.

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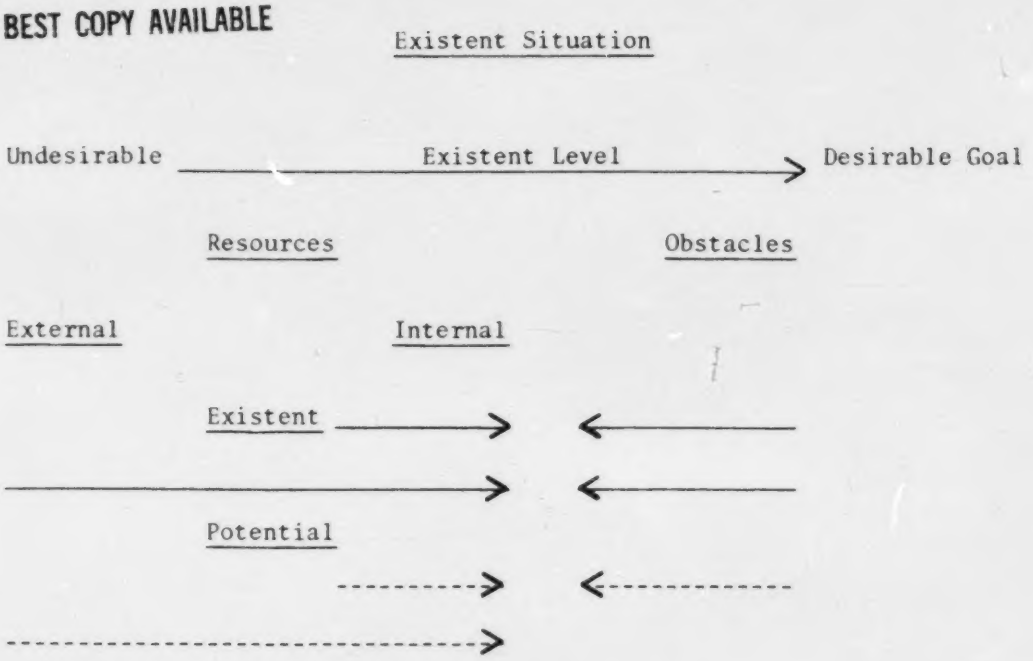


As with obstacles, resources exist both within and outside the Existent Situation. Some exist and some are potentially available. But while obstacles tend to maintain the Existent Level, existent resources tend to push the existent level toward the desirable goal, and potential resources although not presently pushing, could, with some manipulation, be guided into pushing.

The exploration and discovery of resources may be guided by a proposal for hypothesizing methods to overcome obstacles. The following approaches are useful in considering most obstacles of material availability:

Borrowing the needed materials or funds.

Stealing the needed materials or funds.

Seeking an Outside Gift of the needed materials or funds.

Creating needed materials from what is available in the Existent Situation.

Buying the needed materials.

Substituting an available material for one that is needed.

Approaches useful for considering obstacles of manpower availability include:

Hiring the needed manpower.

Coercing people to fill the manpower requirements.

Seeking an Outside Gift of manpower.

Substituting an available source of manpower for one that is needed.

Creating the needed manpower from sources available in the Existent Situation. Creating manpower leads us to approaches useful for surmounting obstacles of human behavior. Behavioral Change can be effected by:

Force--in which fear is the motivating factor.

Manipulation/Persuasion--in which rewards for appropriate behavior are the motivating factor.

Facilitation--in which learning resources are made available, learners are trusted to come to and take responsibility for their own conclusions, and the motivation factor is the learner's curiosity, or in a development situation, the learner's desire to improve the conditions of his existence.

Given a particular obstacle and the general approaches that can be taken to surmount it, it may be appropriate to tentatively assess and eliminate approaches that seem unlikely to succeed. It might well be that an approach originally considered unworkable may turn out to be the only alternative if an obstacle is to be dealt with successfully. The following criteria are suggested as a means of assessing and eliminating approaches:

Cost--refers to financial, material, or human expenditures.

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Time--refers to quantities of time, needed to carry out the approach, or to sequences of events which are necessary if an approach is to be workable.

Availability--refers to financial, material, or human requirements.

Feasibility--refers to conditions in the Existent Situation that will affect an approach or some aspect of it, e.g., the problem of ethical acceptability, or to some inherent aspect of the approach itself.

Elimination of approaches can only be useful if there is at least a general idea of the resources in an Existent Situation. The first round of resource exploration, then, is guided by the types of approaches to obstacles and the types of criteria used to assess and eliminate approaches. A matrix composed of these types may be a useful guide to resource exploration.

| Approaches To Obstacles / Assessment and Elimination Criteria | Cost | Time | Availability | Feasibility |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Material Availability | | | | |
| 1. Borrowing | | | | |
| 2. Stealing | | | | |
| 3. Outside Gift | | | | |
| 4. Creating | | | | |
| 5. Buying | | | | |
| 6. Substituting | | | | |
| 7. Other | | | | |
| Manpower Availability | | | | |
| 1. Hiring | | | | |
| 2. Coercing | | | | |
| 3. Outside Gift | | | | |
| 4. Substituting | | | | |
| 5. Creating | | | | |
| 6. Other | | | | |
| Human Behavior | | | | |
| 1. Force | | | | |
| 2. Manipulation/ Persuasion | | | | |
| 3. Facilitation | | | | |

The matrix can be utilized to ask such questions in resource exploration as: (1) Are there finances available for buying, hiring? (2) Are stealing, coercion and force feasible? And, (3) are outside gifts available? If the answer to any of the questions raised by using the matrix is "no," then consideration of that particular approach can be tentatively eliminated and only returned to if no other workable approach can be developed.

The next step is to determine what sorts of resources will be needed to carry out the various types of approaches still being considered after the first round of assessment and elimination. Resource exploration can be facilitated by certain types of questions. The matrix below may be a useful device in generating these sorts of questions.

| Resources | Resource Manipulation: Expand Function | Increase Performance | Create New | Use As Is |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Who | | | | |
| What | | | | |

For example, suppose the approach being considered is changing human behavior by force. One could ask: (1) who can do the enforcing? e.g. institutions, individuals: a) can an institution/individual's function be expanded to include this responsibility? b) is someone already carrying out this function whose performance can be increased so that the function is carried out more successfully? c) are there resources available to create new agencies to take on this responsibility? or d) is there an institution/individual already meeting this responsibility and no changes need be made? One could also ask (2) what can be used or done to justify, support, or aid enforcement: we again check our resource manipulation

list to raise appropriate questions.

Having developed appropriate resource exploration questions for the approaches to each obstacle, the exploration can be carried out. As plans for surmounting each obstacle are roughly formulated, they can be evaluated by using the assessment and elimination criteria discussed previously. Plans that are found lacking in terms of one or more of the criteria can be eliminated. The remaining plans for surmounting each obstacle can then be subjected to a review in search for obstacles that grow out of the nature of the plans themselves. Any obstacles discovered are to be treated in the same manner as the original obstacles and plans can be developed for surmounting them. At this point it is assumed that each obstacle may have a number of planned approaches developed to deal with it. If the plans complement each other, it is to the planner's advantage. If they do not complement each other, then a choice is necessary. The final choice among available plans can be achieved by viewing them from an impact/cost standpoint. Those plans having the potential for the most impact for the least cost are chosen. The final state of the planning phase of the strategic path is the determination of the sequence of application of the plans to the various obstacles. Next is the action phase of the strategic path.

The following illustration attempts to depict methods to be used in the first two phases of the strategic path and the relationships between these phases.

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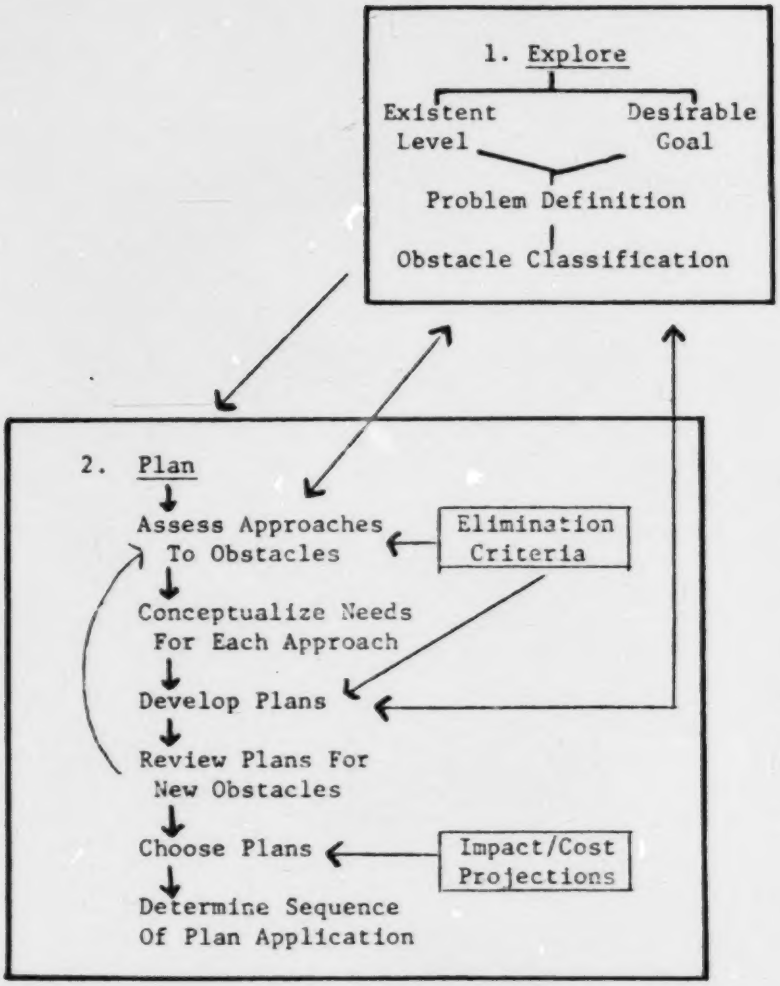


A case study of non-formal education in a development project is described below to illustrate how the path could have been used to plan this particular project. The illustrative example is derived from Rudra Datt Singh's "The Village Level: An Introduction of Green Manuring in Rural India."[1]

The scene of this case was Etawah District, a rural area in India. Exploration of the Existent Situation would have discovered that the Desirable Goal was for farmers in the area to adopt the practice of green manuring. The Existent Level in Etawah District was that few farmers were using the practice of green manuring. Further exploration would have shown that the reasons for the gap, or the problem, were that the farmers lacked knowledge of the practice and advantages of green manuring, and that although they were vaguely aware of the concept of green manuring they were unwilling to ask the amounts of money, effort, and time necessary to practice this modern agricultural technique.

Singh's data helps carry the process of exploration to the discovery of obstacles that were responsible for the problem. Singh mentions no obstacles which are only subject to consideration. We assume that since such things as climate and terrain were not greatly hindering traditional agricultural practices, there is no reason to believe they would create obstacles to the practice of green manuring. In terms of obstacles that can be affected by the works of mankind, Singh mentions no obstacles of material availability. Seed for green manuring was available at a price the farmers could afford if they chose to take the risk and the seed distribution points, and local cooperative stores, were not unreasonably far away from the bulk of the area under cultivation. In terms of manpower availability there was a lack of personnel able to give the farmers knowledge of green manuring. Turning to obstacles of human behavior, exploration would have shown that the farmers lacked sufficient knowledge, which in turn kept them from taking the risk of adopting green manuring practices. Further, the farmers had little faith in the words of the one agency in the area that might have brought them the necessary knowledge, the government extension service.

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Given this much exploration, the process of planning may begin. First, assessment is made of various approaches to the obstacles. In terms of manpower availability, since India is a democracy emphasizing freedom, approaches involving coercion are unlikely to be feasible for both ethical and practical reasons. Singh's data give reason to believe that other sources of manpower which could be substituted for the extension service to bring the necessary knowledge to the farmers were not available. With respect to approaches to obstacles of human behavior, again because India is a democratic state, approaches involving the use of force are not likely to be feasible.

The first assessment completed, conceptualizing what sorts of things would be needed to utilize each remaining approach can be initiated. The manpower obstacle centers around discovering someone or thing that can carry out an education function.

| Approach | Who Available | Resource Manipulation? |
|---|---|---|
| Hiring an -- educating force | Area Communications Media? | 1. If area communications media were not involved in agricultural education, could they be hired to expand their function to include this area? |
| What will be needed? | | 2. If the media were involved, but ineffective, could they be paid to become more effective? |
| | | 3. If the media did not exist in this area, could individuals or institutions be hired to create media to carry knowledge to the farmers? |
| | | 4. Are area communications media involved in dispensing effectively information about the practice and worth of green manuring? |

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| Approach | Who Available | Resource Manipulation? |
|---|---|---|
| What will be needed? | -- Local Farmer(s)? | 1. If a local farmer practices green manuring, could he be hired to expand his function to teaching other farmers about the practice and the benefits of it?<br>2. If a local farmer is teaching the practice of green manuring to other farmers, could his effectiveness be increased in any way?<br>3. If a local farmer learns the practice of green manuring, could he then be hired to teach the practice to others?<br>4. Are local farmers already effectively teaching the practice of green manuring? |
| What will be needed? | -- Outside help?<br>1. intranational/ international<br>2. individual/institution | 1. If an outside agency teaches agricultural education, could it be hired to expand its function to teaching green manuring in Etawah District?<br>2. If an outside agency is teaching green manuring in Etawah District, could it increase its effectiveness in any way?<br>3. If no outside agency teaches green manuring, could one be created and brought to Etawah District?<br>4. Is an outside agency already teaching green manuring in Etawah District successfully? |

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| Approach | Who Available | Resource Manipulation? |
|---|---|---|
| -- | Local Institution | 1. If a local institution, or any of its representatives are involved in education, could they be hired to expand functions to the teaching of green manuring? |
| What will be needed? | | 2. If a local institution, or its representatives, is teaching green manuring, could it increase its effectiveness in any way? |
| | | 3. Could an institution be created from local institutions to teach green manuring? |
| | | 4. Is a local institution teaching green manuring effectively? |
| Outside Gift of an Educating Force -- | International Agency<br>National Agency<br>Foundation<br>Religious Institution | 1. Could any of those be persuaded to expand their function to support the teaching of green manuring in Etawah District? |
| What will be needed? | | 2. If any of those are working in Etawah District could they be persuaded to increase their performance? |
| | | 3. Could a new gift source be created and persuaded to work in Etawah District? |
| | | 4. Are any of these teaching green manuring in Etawah District effectively? |
| Substituting an Educating Force -- | See "Hiring an Educating Force" Above | |
| Creating an Educating Force -- | See Question 3. in all of the above. | |

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The human behavior obstacle is lack of knowledge on the part of the area farmers. What sorts of educating acts can be taken to provide the farmers with the necessary knowledge to cause them to change their behavior toward the practice of green manuring? So,

| Approach | What Available | Resource Manipulation? |
|---|---|---|
| Manipulation/Persuasion | -- Farmers' Tangible Needs? Farmers' Tangible Rewards? | 1. If the farmers have tangible needs and rewards, can these be expanded to guide farmers' behavior in the direction of learning and adopting green manuring? |
| | What are they? | 2. If there are farmers' tangible needs and rewards guiding their agricultural practices toward green manuring, can the performance of these needs and rewards be made more effective? |
| | | 3. Can farmers' tangible needs and rewards be created which will guide agricultural practices toward green manuring? |
| | | 4. Are farmers' tangible needs and rewards presently guiding them toward green manuring? |
| Facilitation | -- Farmers' Desire to Improve Their Conditions | 1. If the farmers have desires, can these farmers be shown a relationship between their desires and the practice of green manuring? |
| | What are the potential means? | 2. If the farmers perceive a relationship between their desires and the practice of green manuring, can this bond be strengthened? |
| | | 3. If the farmers have no desires, can these be created? |
| | | 4. Is the relationship between farmers' desires and green manuring satisfactorily increasing the practice of green manuring? |

Return to Singh's data with the resource exploration questions above will help determine what resources were available in and to Etawah District. In terms of hiring area communications media as an education force, it is found that communications facilities were generally poor or lacking. If they were to be used, they would have to be created first. Exploration finds that some local farmers were practicing green manuring, but were not actively teaching the practice to others. So there are two possibilities in this category, expanding the function of those practicing farmers and creating more farmer-teachers. Turning to available outside help there were agencies involved in agricultural development. International agencies could be hired to expand their function to Etawah District; the Indian extension service performance in the area could be increased, and the possibility of hiring the creation of a new agency to work in Etawah District was available. Singh's data give no evidence of local institutions being involved in teaching green manuring so there are no possibilities available in this category. In terms of seeking an outside gift, it was not existent but the potential could be explored. Certainly there were agencies around the world whose function might be expanded to teaching green manuring in Etawah District. In sum, for Manpower Availability, exploration turned up these possible resources:

1. Potential creation of communications facilities.
2. Hire local farmers practicing green manuring to teach the practice to other farmers; and as more farmers learn the practice, hire them to teach others.
3. Hire outside help to come into Etawah District.

4. Upgrade the performance of the Indian extension service in the area.
5. Create a new outside agency to work in Etawah District.
6. Seek a gift of outside help.

1. *Human Problems in Technological Change*, edited by Edward H. Spicer. Science Editions, N.Y.: John Wiley and Sons, 1967.

# CHAPTER VI - INTERNATIONAL INTERACTION: PAST AND PRESENT TRENDS

The purpose of this section is to highlight the significant turns and development in international assistance within the past few decades. The intention is to explain the processes involved and set the stage for further understanding in the area of non-formal education in international assistance.

More specifically, this section examines what international assistance has done to date, identifies trends with respect to the purpose, channels of interaction, the specific programs, identifies shortcomings and limitations, offers suggestions to overcome them, and finally suggests implications to the international interactions in non-formal education.

## Context

There are certain things which experience with development and international assistance related to it has taught. First, development is a long-term process. The record of crash programs has been a dismal failure.

A second lesson is that "development must come from within and that no foreign help will suffice where there is no national will to make the fundamental changes which are needed."[1]

A third idea is that some countries have been able to make good use of foreign assistance to help them realize their own developmental goals. Constraints and contingencies of capital resources, manpower, knowledge and technology exist in the world, and tend to retard development effort.

Further, many who have studied the matter assert that it is a moral obligation of the more developed nations to help the poorer ones.[2]

Development involves profound changes in individual and institutional behavior, often contradictory to pre-existing value systems and culture traits. To paraphrase Rogers, development is some kind of an aggregate of the individual's modernity behavior, i.e., the tendency of the person to move away from traditionalism to a more dynamic and changing life style.[3]

The Positive Record of International Assistance

The world seems to be better today than it had been. This claim can be supported by citing the human condition in the 100 nations of the so-called lesser developed world. Infant and maternal mortality has gone down, death rate has been lowered, food production has been increased, nutritional status and food intake have increased, and per capita income has improved a little bit. The world today seems to be more enlightened, with greater accessability to formal education among larger numbers of people. Using gross national measures, the U.N. reported that on the average the less developed countries have reached the 5% rate of growth set by the U.N. for the first development decade.

International assistance has had its share in this collective achievement of the less developed countries. As John Hannah says, "because of foreign assistance, the world is a better place today than it would otherwise have been."[4]

Purpose and Objectives of International Assistance: Past and Present Trends

The purposes and objectives of international assistance have undergone turns and shifts in emphasis related to changes within the donor systems and changes in the world situation.

In general it can be said that a good deal of bilateral aid has been dispensed in order to achieve short-term political favors, gain strategic advantage or promote the economic interest of the donor, as the Pearson Commission reported.[5]

The mixing up of developmental and military-political-economic considerations is associated with the strain in the relationship of donors and recipients. Both recipient and donor countries have been re-examining their international aid objectives.

Among the 15 other non-Communist donor countries* one of the recent emphases of foreign assistance is toward technical cooperation.[6] This technical cooperation will be carried on in the major human problems of public health, nutrition, population, education, employment--to facilitate development of traditional societies.

Another major current thrust of the international assistance of OECD countries is integrated rural development. Three reasons are offered for this emphasis: 1) around 70% of the developing countries populations live in rural areas; 2) if rural development can reduce the inequalities in income and opportunities and amenities between town and country, it may then be able to slow down migration to the major cities; and 3) there is a need to increase agricultural output for food and for raw materials for local industries.

*These countries including the U.S. are members of the OECD, a group of bilateral aid givers.

Family planning is also being considered as a major concern of international assistance. It is the belief of the populationists that gains in agricultural productivity could be offset and become meaningless by the ever-increasing numbers of consumers.

One other area of focus for international aid identified by the OECD is education. Both the OECD and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) report that there has been a rapid expansion in the growth of the educational system the world over. This is caused by the people's perception of demand for skilled labor to fill the requirement of a growing economy.

In summary, it can be said that the trend in international assistance purposes and objectives has shifted from a mixed, multi-dimensional and undifferentiated purposes of donor self-interest in political, military, and economic matters and recipient oriented aid for humanitarian and developmental purposes, to a more recipient and developmental oriented policy and programs. This is evidenced by the increasing emphasis in integrated rural development, family planning, educational reforms, and technical cooperation and the disengagement of military, political and economic linkages to aid.

Shortcomings and Problems With International Assistance in the Past

The first shortcoming of international assistance in the past is the matter of gross measure of developmental growth. The measure of growth of a country was, in the past, confined largely to GNP. It was the most respectable indicator of rate of growth up to the 1960's. The assumption was that if GNP is high enough, poverty will take care of itself, unemployment will disappear, and income will be redistributed

later through fiscal means.[7] This did not work. On the average, the less developed countries have met the 5% GNP standard set by the U.N. for the first development decade. But proverty, unemployment, and income distribution didn't take care of themselves as predicted.

A second shortcoming may be that the more affluent countries have not moved enough to assist the less affluent nations. At the U.N. Conference on Trade and Development in Santiago, Chile, it was clear that the target of .7% of nation's GNP contribution to development assistance will not be reached in the first half of the second Development Decade.

A third problem is indicated by the low correlation between aid and national growth. The Pearson Commission advances two reasons for this low correlation. The first has to do with balance of payments. Imports have outrun growth in some countries thereby overburdening them with foreign debts. Foreign aid has contributed to this situation through capital intensive forms of aid, the tying of aid, and aid projects which are not high on the receiver's priority. The other reason, the Commission reports, is that the purpose and form of aid is sometimes not connected to long-ranged and sustained economic development of the receiving nations.

Inefficiency in aid administration is a fourth shortcoming. Archaic rules and regulations, along with domestic political pressures, have become a massive constraint causing long delays, operating inflexibility, absorption of scarce administrative talent, and souring of aid relations.

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The lack of continuity of some foreign aid is the fifth limitation. As the Pearson reports comments, "The allocation of aid on an annual basis creates substantial obstacles to assimilation of aid flows into budgets and development plans in the low income countries." Even more serious is the unpredictability of future aid.

A sixth shortcoming of international aid is the imposition of foreign models for approaching problems in the less developed countries. Michigan State University President Clifton R. Wharton, Jr. in his address at the Rockefeller University last year said:

> From the beginning, our bilateral aid programs placed considerable emphasis upon each aid-receiving nation determining its own needs in the planning process. And yet, any objective observer could not help but note the repetitive duplication of program after program in country after country, as though the planners in all Third World nations were of one mind. Perhaps they were, but the suspicion remains that it was our conception of need which dominated and our conception was surprisingly consistent.[8]

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1. Report of the Commission on International Development (1969), *Partners in Development*, Praeger Publishers.

2. *Ibid.*

3. Everett Rogers, "Communication in Development: Modifications in the Classical Diffusion Model for Family Planning," paper read at the Third World Congress for Rural Sociology, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, August 22-27, 1972.

4. John A. Hannah, "The World is a Better Place," statement made following Senate rejection of foreign aid authorization bill on October 29, 1971. *War on Hunger*, December, 1971.

5. Report of the Commission on International Development, *Op. Cit.*, p. 4.

6. Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), *1972 Review*.

7. Mahbub Ul Haq, "Employment in the 1970's: A New Perspective," paper read at the World Conference of the Society for International Development, Ottawa, May, 1971.

8. Clifton R. Wharton, Jr., "Pro Universali Academia Mundi: U.S. Universities in International Development," The Fairfield Osborn Memorial Lecture 1972, The Rockefeller University, New York, October 18, 1972.

## CHAPTER VII - CATEGORIES OF INTERNATIONAL INTERACTION

International assistance as described in the previous chapter, has the connotation of a flow of personnel, material or ideas from one country to another. Discussions of such "assistance" rarely consider the mutually beneficial aspects of transactions. The emphasis in this section is on interaction (System A $\rightleftarrows$ System B), rather than on assistance (System A $\rightarrow$ System B), in order to focus attention on the reciprocity of international transfers. By emphasizing the mutual costs and benefits to two interacting systems, a major shortcoming of past foreign assistance programs can be overcome. The perspective of this chapter, and of the subsequent strategies for non-formal education, is the reciprocity inherent in interactions.

After a more detailed discussion of the concept interaction, this chapter will offer a set of categories which designate the major elements of an international interaction. As criteria of relevance, the categories offer a schema for the organization of international interaction data. The categories will provide an overview of the field and second, they will include enough relevant variables to suggest hypotheses for empirical testing. It is through this overview of the general categories and discussion of their more specific components that we hope to understand the field of international interaction enough to make it comprehensible, and, perhaps even manageable.

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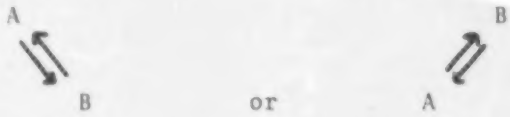
International Interactions

There are two basic types of interaction: symmetrical and asymmetrical. In the symmetrical interaction, there is equality of position of the two systems. A ⇄ B. No one system permanently dominates the other. The benefits accrued from the interaction are not awarded disproportionately to one system. Asymmetrical interaction is based on differences of position of the two systems; one is more "up" and the other more "down."




In the short run, most interactions will involve a changing of position as the systems acknowledge relative superiority in different fields. The interaction is asymmetrical when one system retains the stance of "superiority" throughout the interaction.

An assumption in this paper is that the first type of interaction is more desirable for long-term, effective innovation in both countries:

> One may speak of [interaction] as "reciprocity". . . in which case justice, not clarity, exploitation or investment, is its basis . . . a form of reciprocity which defines the purpose of transfers as follows: the creation of new value syntheses by partners from diverse cultures and technical levels.[1]

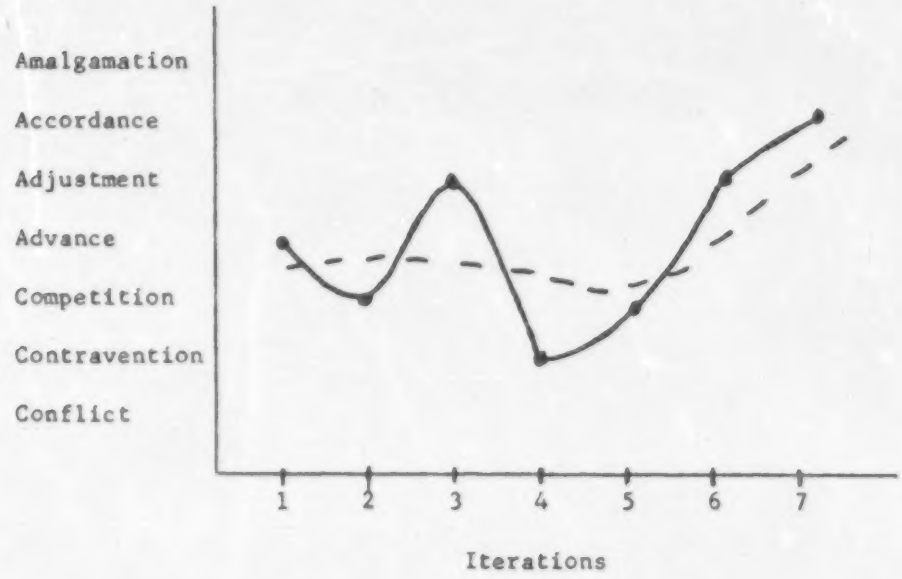
Another way to approach international interactions is to consider the various levels of relationships. Even if the interaction is reciprocal among equals, the degree of interaction can vary. The various levels can be divided into two groups: those which describe efforts for accommodation and those which define efforts for dominance of one system over another.[2] The options available for achieving various levels of accomodation are advance, adjustment, accordance and amalgamation. Advance simply

refers to the desire to encourage greater proximity of the systems. Adjustment defines a new stage of mutual accommodation; the systems actually respond to each other, mutually affect each other. A modus vivendi is established where there is agreement to differ and to agree. The third level of accordance reveals further engagement and reflects the fact that some merger of preferences has been accomplished. Alliances and associations might be at this level. Amalgamation describes accordance to the extent that some unity is sought. Assimilation is achieved such as in a federation or incorporation.

The second division acknowledges the dissension and antagonism inherent in any human interactions. Adjustment, even if sought explicitly, is not achieved without some conflict. This division, however, defines the interactions which are consciously contentious. In competition dissociation starts. The goals of one system are sought at the possible expense of the other. Rules are sometimes manipulated to achieve the end-state. Accommodation is made only to lower the costs for oneself, not necessarily for mutual benefit. Contravention is that level of the disassociative process which raises the question whether association should continue. Association is retained but opposition is vociferous and extensive. Conflict occurs when force is used by one or both systems to impose their own interests on the other. Power is then measured by resources and their mobilization, not by negotiating skills.

Although there is probably some sequential order to these levels of interaction (advance precedes amalgamation), the range and frequency of the approaches can and do vary considerably. Given two systems, the range of their interactions is depicted by the amplitude of the "wave"

in the diagram below. The frequency of use of one approach may also be determined by the diagram. The wave diagram gives the dynamic nature of the interaction over time. The broken line defines the central mode for the entire set of iterations observed.




This diagram is useful in that it reveals the possibility of associative interactions "slipping" to stages of disassociation for certain time intervals. Even if the intention is to increase accommodation, the very act of interaction can create conflicts which must be resolved before the association can progress. Mediation of conflict is a necessary prerequisite for any long-term interaction. The point to be emphasized here is that most discussions of interactions ignore the disassociative aspects. Attempts at accommodation are made with the actors assuming they are still at the "adjustment" level when in fact the interaction has turned "competitive." Mutual awareness of the dynamic process of interaction would facilitate advancement toward accordance or amalgamation.

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Unit of Analysis

International interactions are similar to interpersonal relationships. The level of the interaction may be clarified for analytic purposes. In most accounts of international exchanges "the government" incorporates the total societal units, organizational units and individual units. This type of macro analysis overshadows the insights that micro analysis might have to offer. It seems advisable for analytic purposes that the unit of analysis be broken down below the grand systematic level of government.

The perspective here is the organizational level; the categories are most directly related to the interactions of organizations, not of total governmental systems. The selection of organizations as the major actor reflects the assumption that organizations can combine the technical capabilities and the value commitments required to initiate innovations and to promote them in the environment. H. E. Hoelscher, President of the Asian Institute of Technology, suggests the following schema[3] for the relative effectiveness of interactions by different actors:

| | Costs | | Performance | | Long-Range Effect |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Direct Out of Pocket | % of Expenditure to Need | No. of People Aided | Req. time for Effect of Effort | (On Institutions and Infra-Structures |
| People to People | Low | High | Low | Small | Negligible |
| Org. in nation to Org. in nation | High | Lower | Higher | Higher | Higher but unknown |
| Multi-natl. org. to natl. or regional org. | Highest | Lowest | Higher | Higher | |

The assumption about the efficacy of organizations does not designate the type of organization which is preferable. The contemporary structured bureaucracies, which promote specialization of roles, formal rules, and hierarchical authority structures, are still advocated by many.[4] This model occurs most frequently in contemporary society and aspects of it are found in the "institution-building" approach to international interactions.

Criticism of the variations of this organizational structure has become more and more poignant. The critics denounce the hierarchical structure as stifling; they call for flexible channels of communication and decision-making that create more diffuse patterns of authority. Disagreements are not to be suppressed by top management smoothing over differences, but are to be fully confronted and openly debated. Innovation, which often means dissent, is encouraged. Another important difference of the "new organizations" is their impermanence. Rapid social change seems to call for temporary, issue-oriented associations.[5]

This brief presentation of the controversy over the nature of organizations is not to advocate one position. Having chosen organizations as the unit of analysis, it seemed necessary to point out the wide range of meanings the term evokes. The categories of international organization discussed in this chapter can apply to any group, aggregation or organization.

The perspective here is organizational, but the bias is not to exclude consideration of the individual. Organizations do have autonomous identities: doctrines, programs, channels. Yet individuals redefine, redirect and destroy organizations. The relationship of individuals to the organization, as well as individual relationships within the organization, are fundamental issues.

Six major components or elements of international interaction are designated in an attempt to understand more fully this concept. The elements are mission, doctrine, participation, program, resources, and channel. Some of these components are simply described. Categorization within a component (e.g., mission) seemed only to restrict, and not to clarify, the concept. It is hoped that a careful descriptive consideration will lead to more general theories which can be empirically based.

Mission

Mission gives directional force to an organization in its interactions; the mission describes the legitimizing context of the organization. Mission is defined as a set of end-states that are considered to be desired beyond the present-state of some aspects of the entire system. Thus, mission can be described in terms of the differences in the end-state of the system as compared with the present-state of the system. It is clear that mission is not determined by an organization, but rather it is adopted by the organization from the economic-cultural context of the society.

The mission reflects such primary and fundamental self-interests as survival and growth . . . objectives which may be considered universal. Yet this universality is deceptive. What seems to endure over time and to be common to the societies of man varies considerably. More than one diplomatic corps has been mistaken when its operational definitions of another's mission did not consider the dynamic change which had occurred.

Understanding of the mission is important because it is the prime motivational force, yet it is difficult to define and understand. It tends to have cultural, social, and historical aspects. The complexity of the concept is also perpetuated by the manner in which the mission is conveyed. It is as likely to be implicit as explicit. One could even hypothesize that the more important the mission is, the more implicit it will be. Only as iterations continue will the mission of one interacting system be gradually discerned by the other.

Describing the desired end-state of the socio-political milieu in which the organizations are found, the mission can accommodate many different types of organizations. The more an organization adapts the mission to its societal context, however, the more likely it is to endure. This adaptation may be diametrically opposed, however, to effective international interactions. Continuing the interactions might depend on the ability of the organization to "ignore" or modify the general mission. The mission, therefore, is of crucial importance in designating the context of the interation. Missions of both systems must be considered as an initial step in exploring possible interactions.

Doctrine

The doctrine is the central purpose of an organization. It is a formulation of principles, a self-propelling, self-renewing value system upon which an organization proposes to base its action or policy. More than a set of normative standards, however, the doctrine also specifies the operations and offers concrete guidelines for policy:

> Doctrine is an expression of what the organization stands for, what it hopes to achieve and the styles of action it intends to use.[6]

There can be more than one doctrine to further a mission, yet a dominant doctrine will permeate an organization. If it changes, a fundamental component of the organization has been modified and ensuing changes occur in structure, programs and participants. Indeed, organizational theorists ofter define organization in terms of its doctrine.[7]

Although one can assign such a crucial role to doctrine, this approach tends to obscure its dynamic quality. Doctrine is also described as the self-view of the organization. If a family-planning organization views itself as primarily concerned with population control, it differs from one which designates the health of the mother as the major factor. The self-view of the organizations, however, do change. As the organization matures, its doctrine often becomes more complex; it incorporates more objectives. Simple population control may evolve into concern for pre- and post-natal care for the mother. On the other hand, sometimes aspects of a doctrine are discontinued; a function becomes unnecessary.

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Besides the normative basis and action orientation of this dynamic concept, there is further duplicity to the term. It is clear from the definitions above that doctrine affects the content and the operations of the organization. The means is often as important as the substantive content. The decline of organizations is often defined in terms of the dominance of the procedures over the content; the operations become important in and for themselves. The simple schema given below depicts the relationship of these characteristics of doctrine.

| | Utilitarian | Affective |
|---|---|---|
| Content | A | B |
| Process | C | D |

Because content and process are both aspects of doctrine these variables are considered conjointly, not separately. For example, if the content and the process of an organization are both utilitarian (A and C), the doctrine will facilitate interaction. Where there is an affective element in either content or process, it is more difficult to initiate interaction with another system. Affective characteristics are less negotiable, less susceptible to compromise. Rationale for adhering to procedures which are affective relate such ideas as "It is the right way to do it;" "We have always done it that way;" "We have tried that before and it won't work;" "All other X's do the same." "Utilitarian" does not refer solely to material values. Content can be "utilitarian"

in that it serves specified humanistic goals. The purposes which "utilitarian" do not serve usually, are those which support emotional attachments or goals. This variable has, therefore, a much broader connotation than usually implied.

If the content is utilitarian and the process is affective (A and D), one aspect will probably change. Again, the affective process does not permit much flexibility for adaptation to implement the content successfully. If the two are incompatible, the content aspect is more likely to be the one to change. On the other hand, an affective content and a utilitarian process (B and C) can adjust. Eventually a process will be found to implement the content. Before interaction is initiated, therefore, a frank appraisal of how many aspects of the prospective program reveal a doctrine which is negotiable may facilitate interaction. The shorter the list of points which can be compromised, the less reason there is to initiate interaction. This idea is not to say that organizations with affective doctrines cannot interact (the interaction might even make them more utilitarian); it is rather an acknowledgement that these organizations will probably initiate their interaction at the conflict levels of interaction (conflict, contravention or competition).

This diagram is also useful for discussing the dynamic nature of doctrine. As an organization becomes older, more of the content and process may become affective (A to B and C to D). The original utilitarian rationale for the doctrine is replaced with affective attachment and organizational identity with certain content and processes. The age of the organization may even be measured by the number of characteristics which could be judged affective. The more viable organization will have both categories of its doctrine relating to the utilitarian function it is to fulfill.

Participants

Organizations do not act; their participants do. Selection of the participants is influenced by the mission and the doctrine; they, in turn, modify the mission and doctrine. Given the mission, the doctrine, and the participants, much of the interaction is defined.

Education and communication experts hypothesize that diffusion of innovation is through the elites. The leaders are the key to understanding the process and content of the diffusion or change.

Selection of the elite for leadership is crucial to the interaction. Different leaders will choose different programs, channels, resources for transfer. The mixture of the leadership is also important. An agriculturalist will see problems from his perspective; a sanitation engineer emphasizes totally different aspects of the problems. One of the major causes of failure in development programs has been an overly specialized approach: leaders from only one or two sectors, and professionals from only one or two fields, review the problem with their own particularistic blinders.[8] Given adequate levels of expertise, selection of the problem-solvers from all relevant fields is necessary for the success of the program.

This first consideration of elites is necessary, but not sufficient. Effective interaction depends on exchange and diffusion beyond the elites. If the doctrine is to extend benefits outside of the elite, then perhaps such emphasis on leadership roles should be modified. Criteria for leadership might include more than just technical knowledge; local leaders have a different kind of expertise in their ability to increase awareness and mobilize the people. Modification of this emphasis could result

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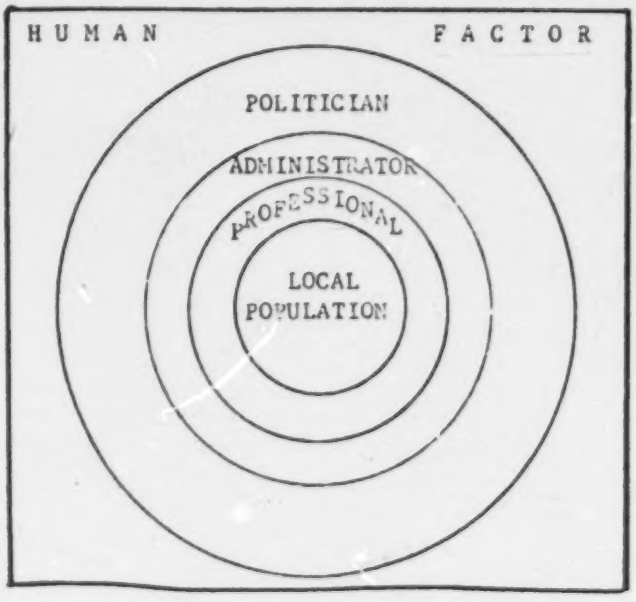
from including members of the population in the earliest stages of decision-making. The concept of iterative reciprocity (discussed in Chapter VII) addresses this problem and defines all the participants as both recipients and change agents.

One way of categorizing the participants in the interaction would be to describe them by the roles they fulfill in relationship to the organization. For any exchange, the following roles are participants: professionals, administrators, politicians, and the local population. It is these role cadres which bring to the interaction their own perspective which must be considered if the exchange is to occur or continue. Neglect of any one aspect will certainly retard or hinder altogether the expansion of the interaction.

A further consideration incorporates all the groups. We may call it the "human factor," for the participants will not only bring their professional perspective to the interaction but other aspects of their personal life. Personality and cultural differences seem too obvious to mention; they are often taken for granted and consequently, are sources of embarrassment, delay and disruption.



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The relationships established among the various roles cited above reveal fundamental differences in programs of interaction and often are the determination of success or failure. The first diagram given below depicts a rigid compartmentalization of roles such that a farmer in a non-formal educational program learns, an administrator manages and a professional teaches. No doctrine or program has in reality this hierarchical structure of interrelationships, yet the diagram could be useful as a prototype by which to compare other interactions.

RIGID PROTOTYPE

| | Recipient of Instruction | Manager[a] | Sponsor[b] | Teacher |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Government Official | | X | | |
| Board of Directors | | X | X | |
| Program Administrators | | X | | X |
| Program Professionals | | X | | X |
| Local Population:[c] | | | | |
| Farmer | X | | | |
| Craftsmen | X | | | |
| Religious Leaders | X | | | |
| Village Women | X | | | |
| Youth | X | | | |
| | | | | |

[a] Manager is one who supervises or coordinates the interaction of participant and resources.

[b] Sponsor refers to those who provide resources: financial, material or human.

[c] Local Population - The roles delineated here will change with the program. The ones listed above refer to a rural development project.

It can be hypothesized that success of a program of interaction is directly related to the degree of combined responsibilities. The more a government administrator can accept a role of learner or a villager can assume responsibility for sponsorship, the greater the flexibility of the doctrine and program. Of course, these interrelationships do occur

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informally in almost any interaction; the suggestion here is to try to build the multiciplicity of roles into the interaction. The Integrated Rural Development Program in Bangladesh (Comilla model) has been acclaimed a "success" by many evaluators. The combination of roles in the IRDP is depicted below as an illustrative comparison with the more standard type given earlier.

BANGLADESH IRDP[9]

| | Recipient of Instruction | Manager | Sponsor | Teacher |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Government Official | X | X | | X |
| Board of Directors | | X | X | |
| Program Administrators | X | X | | X |
| Program Professionals | X | X | | X |
| Local Population: | | | | |
| Farmer | X | X | X | X |
| Craftsmen | X | X | X | X |
| Religious Leaders | X | | | X |
| Village Women | X | | | X |
| Youth | | | | |
| | | | | |

This proposal for greater integration of roles obviously involves greater risk on the part of all the participants as they venture into roles not previously experienced. The traditional "recipient" has always been vulnerable. This schema changes that perspective and emphasizes that all are "recipients" and all are vulnerable. The complexity of problems confronted in international interactions requires maximal use of all the participants' capabilities. The record of high costs rather than benefits to all parties in an interaction requires that we look at more radical patterns of interrelationships of the participants.

Program

The program has been described as the output of an organization. Given a mission and a doctrine, the program is the activities which are implemented to carry out the mission and the doctrine.

One could designate three aspects of program: issues, resources, and structures. The general orientation of the issues of concern to the program are determined by the doctrine and the mission. The implementation of the doctrine in a program is more directly related to questions of resource mobilization and formation of structures and linkages. The manner and extent of use of human resources is a critical factor in program implementation. As international interactions have increased, it has been found that omission of major sectors of participants is detrimental. Program success seems to require involvement of those most directly affected by decisions in the actual decision-making process. The more restricted the participants are in their influence, the less likely they will be to accept the program.

There are many structural questions which must be answered in order to carry out the program. Each must be answered in the context of specific interactions:

A. Is the program to be comprehensive or specific? What are the number and kind of activities pursued?

B. Is the program horizontal or hierarchical? Is the program directed mainly at targets of the same socio-political level, such as villages or sub-sections of villages? Or is it to include a combination of villages, cities, regions?

C. Are there support structures which must be implemented such as marketing or input delivery systems?

D. Should a separate organization or adhocracy be set up to implement the doctrine?

E. What linkages are necessary with other cooperating organizations?

F. Should immunity from political maneuvering be sought?

Resources

It seems that Mission and doctrine designate the materials and human means that are sought, and the amount that is "needed" to achieve a particular goal. Alternative choices made available by changing emphases of the mission or attitudes alter the resources that can be used. (For a strategic discussion of resource manipulation, refer back to Chapter IV.)

Selection of resources to be transferred will depend on the program and its priorities. Categorization of the resources could be by difficulty of transfer. For example, capital and material transfers are perhaps the easiest to implement. Exchange of personnel or processes usually require more time and energy; the relative cost may be higher. Transfer of ideas or attitudes is perhaps the most difficult to achieve. Success in the transfer of technical aid is documented; the ideas and attitudes needed for the modification or acceptance of the technology are less easily changed.

Comparison of the resources exchanged can also be determined by who has control of them. If the "control participants" are not the same as the "learner participants," the interaction will differ from one in which all participants share the control. There are several combinations possible. There is the case of sponsors who provide the resources and make the decisions but do not participate in the program. There are sponsors who provide resources but do not dominate the planning or decision-making. An anonymous sponsor would be an example of this case. Third, there are sponsors which provide the resources and are also the learners or managers. The most common form is the situation where sponsors contribute and participate somewhat, and participants control a little but mainly are involved in carrying out the doctrine. The two groups share some responsibilities but remain functionally separated and specific. Dominant control of resources is the major element which discourages exchange. Perhaps one could say that interaction depends on the reciprocal control of resources.

Channel

The channel defines the linkage between the interacting systems. The various media of transfers have been discussed in the context of non-formal education in Chapter IV. They apply as well to international interaction. Two further considerations of channels will be briefly discussed here: the members involved in the interaction and the direction of the exchange.

The members involved in the interaction refer to whether it is multilateral or bilateral. Consideration of an interaction should include these alternatives for they have implications for the doctrine, the number and role of the participants, the program pursued and the control of the resources.

The final element of this category anticipates the discussion of the strategy for international interaction. The concern is whether the channel records uni-directional or reciprocal exchanges. Strict uni-directional exchanges are, of course, impossible. Even dropping a bomb or other forms of imposition of influence will affect the dominant one. Yet such a transaction is predominantly uni-directional. In contrast, a reciprocal exchange requires mutual participation of both systems. It implies that one system is not dominat for the duration of the transaction.

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1. Dennis Goulet, *The Cruel Choice* (New York: Atheneum, 1971), pp. 171-172.

2. Howard Becker, *Man in Reciprocity* (New York: Frederick Praeger, 1956), pp. 380-415.

3. H. E. Hoelscher, "Development Processes: Uncertainties and Unknowns," n.p., n.d. (Mimeographed).

4. The following are only a few citations from a vast literature: Milton J. Esman, "Some Issues in Institution Building Theory," in *Institution Building*, ed. by D. Woods Thomas, *et.al.* (Cambridge: Schenkman Publishing Co., 1972), pp. 65-91; Samuel Huntington, "Political Development and Political Decay," *World Politics*, 17 (April, 1965), 386-430; Harry Izmirlian, "Institutionalization of Political Values and Structures: An Indian Example," Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University, 1967 (Mimeographed); John D. Montgomery, *et.al.*,"Rural Improvement and Political Development," Comparative Public Administration Special Series No. 7 (Washington, D.C.: American Society for Public Administration, 1966); Nicos P. Mouzelis, *Organization and Bureaucracy* (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1968); Mayer Zald and Roberta Ash, "Social Movement Organizations: Growth, Decay and Change," *Social Forces*, 44 (1966), 327-41.

5. Charles Hampden-Turner, *Radical Man*, (Cambridge: Schenkman Publishing Co., 1970), pp. 151-52.

6. George H. Axinn and Sudhakar Thorat, *Modernizing World Agriculture* (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1972), p. 177.

7. J. Silva de Carvallo, "Brazilian School of Public Administration," (unpublished Ph.D dissertation, University of Southern California, 1968), pp. 32-33.

8. M. Taghi Farvar and John P. Milton, eds., *The Careless Technology*, Conference on the Ecological Aspects of International Development, (Garden City, New York: Natural History Press, 1972).

9. For appraisals of the IRDP (Bangladesh), see the following:

Akhter Hameed Khan, *Tour of Twenty Thanas*, (Comilla: Pakistan Academy for Rural Development, 1971).

Pakistan Academy for Rural Development, *Tenth Annual Report, July 1968-June 1969*, (Comilla, 1970).

Arthur Raper, *Rural Development in Action*, (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1970).

CHAPTER VIII - INTERNATIONAL INTERACTIONS: STRATEGIES

In light of the description and the analysis of international interactions in the last two chapters, this chapter is designed to assess the assumptions underlying past strategies, and suggest more appropriate strategic approaches for the future.

Past efforts were based on certain tacit assumptions which may have been counterproductive. The assumption was that development proceeds along a uni-dimensional scale and that all of the world's nation-states could be rank-ordered by some formula from the "most developed" to the "least developed."

With this underlying posture, it was natural to assume that certain functions necessary for economic growth, as well as mechanisms for turning on those functions, were simply absent in the less developed societies. With respect to education, instead of recognizing that every society carries out this essential function, albeit in its own way, the assumption has traditionally been made that this key function had to be supplied from outside. Therefore, an attempt is made to transplant either an institution or a technology to the other society. A simple statement of this approach is that "nation A" tries to assist the people in "nation B" to build the kinds of institutions that will be able to handle the technology of "nation A" in the society of "nation B."

This approach has been undertaken in the contemporary world by well-meaning individuals, institutions and organizations, and nation-states as they are invited to intervene (in the form of technical assistance) in the affairs of another nation-state.

The purpose of this section is not to suggest ways of making the above described technical assistance/institution building approach more effective or more efficient, although this may be a worthy goal. The objective, rather, is to contrast this strategy with a totally different approach to the intervention into the affairs, and particularly the educational system, of another nation-state or cultural area. The contrasting strategy might be called the exploration and discovery approach.

Explore and Discover

With the alternate strategy, i.e., explore and discover, instead of assuming that one "modern and developed" society has institutions of benefit to a "less developed" society, the outsiders recognize that the other society already has similar basic institutions. One assumes that fundamental functions or services are carried out in all social systems. Each nation has some kind of existing system to meet its needs. The first steps, therefore, are to explore the host culture and to discover the means used for carrying out basic services.

Many individuals among technical assistance personnel have utilized personal strategies of "explore and discover." They tend to have been the more sensitive and perceptive of those involved, and are numbered among the more successful.

An example here might be appropriate. One can assume that every social system has some kind of educational function being carried on within it. The educational system can be analyzed in terms of structure, curriculum, staff, students, philosophy, facilities, and equipment.

Much education in a "folk-village society"[1] is carried out entirely within the extended family or kinship group, which fulfills such functions in addition to education, as procreation, governance, the production of food, and the provision of shelter.

The family (as an educational system) has a curriculum, even though it is not usually written down. There are certain things, however, that each age-grade learns, and there are teaching responsibilities of both sexes and various ages within the family which can be described, analyzed, and perhaps modified through outside influence. Each age-grade usually has specific "teaching" responsibilities with respect to the younger family members. This "non-formal" educational system has teachers, although they are not "hired" as such.

Similarly, there are students in the non-formal system, and they too tend to be differentiated by age-grade. Conventionally, the older persons teach the younger (family students).

And just as a university or vocational school has a "doctrine"[2] to guide its activities, so the extended family has a philosophy of education that dictates the way in which its educational functions are carried out.

The rural folk-village may not have any identifiable facilities as school buildings, but whatever facilities are used in the educational process are, de facto, the educational facilities. They may not look

like school rooms at all, but they may function quite well as the facilities of education. The same may be said for equipment.

For example, in a rural society, it is not unusual for one cluster of families to be weavers. They may grow cotton, spin it into thread and weave the thread into cloth. Another cluster of families may be potters. They dig clay and make it into pots. A third set of families in the same village, or in an adjacent village, might be woodcarvers. They have certain tools and know how to sharpen and maintain their tools; they can select wood and carve various things.

In a certain sense, the families in each of these clusters serve as vocational schools. That is, each generation in the weaving families learns how to grow cotton, spin thread, and weave cloth from the last generation. It may be that certain ages and sexes have various tasks to perform, but each member of the group learns how to do those things which he needs to be able to do at the appropriate time.

The same kind of social system would also have other branches of curriculum besides the vocational. For instance, the young persons learning to spin cotton might also be learning the religion of the group, along with proper food handling and preparation at the same time.

The students in this family-school tend to begin vocational training after beginning the language-learning part of the curriculum, which tends to take place during the first year or two of life and continues thereafter.

A Different Basic Strategy

In the study of alternative strategies of cross-cultural/international interventions in education, one can identify a "change system" and a "target system."

The typical assumption is that the technology of the change system is good for all mankind, and it would be desirable for the target system to share that technology. Therefore, the institutions or organizations of the change system should be either transplanted or somehow developed within the target system.

It would be a significantly different approach and strategy of intervention for representatives of the change system to enter the target system as "explorers" and try to "discover" the manifestations of organizations which already function there. This approach first examines the way of life and the indigenous mode of operation, then begins by suggesting minimal modifications to what already exists rather than substituting foreign transplants.

This strategy has many advantages. It tends to lessen the natural points of conflict. It is less arrogant and less threatening to the target system. It is less likely to be rejected, as it builds upon existing institutions instead of challenging them. It is more likely to persist over time.

An introduction of foreign technology or organizational structure may conflict with the geography, the social structure, the religion(s), the family system, the politics, the economics, the indigenous educational system, and the attitudes toward time, efficiency, etc. of the target culture. Such conflicts reduce the chances of achieving desirable

ends. But if small scale, unhurried influence is applied in terms of minor adjustments to the already existing system, the chance of persistent change is much greater. To illustrate, a change in curriculum in a potting village might be nothing more than a demonstration of how the same clay can be handled in the same way to make a small ash tray instead of a large water pot. The ash tray might be marketed outside the village in exchange for cash. The structure of the educational system is not changed at all; the teachers are still the older members and the students still the younger members of the family. And the philosophy, the staff, the facilities, and the equipment do not have to change either. There has been a small change in curriculum, however, enabling participants in this educational system to learn something beyond that which they were learning before.

For the potters of one village to send their sons and daughters to be trained by weavers in another village is a more drastic change. In exchange, the potters might offer to train some of the sons and daughters of the weavers. This exemplifies a structural change, and might have philosophical-social connotations. It is less of a shift, however, than the introduction of a western-style vocational school into the target system.

The point is that technical assistance, if limited to modifications of only one or several minor components of a target system institution, is more likely to achieve a limited goal. Major alterations or substitutions of several components tend to disrupt accepted tradition, and, as a result, become counter-productive.

The strategy of explore and discover is based on a doctrine that "the world exists," and that each group has made an adjustment to its environment. This doctrine assumes that technologies and institutions already present in any given location were once appropriate for that location. But, as time goes by and the environment changes, relatively fixed technologies and institutions become less appropriate. By minor but significant changes, this strategy seeks to induce fixed traditions to become more flexible and more responsive to the present needs of a society. The strategy also replaces the arrogance of technical assistance by promoting a cross-cultural interaction in which both participants must learn from each other if the interaction is to be successful.

Of course, those who intervene in the educational system of another country are not free from local influence. It is not unusual for host-country nationals, particularly representatives of the "international elite" or "third culture" (described below) who themselves have studied abroad, to want for their own country exact replicas of some of the things they have seen abroad.

While it may be appropriate to include persons from the host country (target system) in the early planning of any such interaction, their suggestions may not be wholly reflective of their needs. Those aspects of the change system identified by target system representatives as desirable for their own country may and may not be so desirable. The very nature of the strategy of exploration and discovery requires a broad sampling of the target system situation and population; the parochialism of "third culture" opinion is thereby reduced.

The International Interaction Milieu

International interventions tend to have human, administrative, political, and diplomatic, as well as professional, dimensions.

A professional international intervention is diagrammed in Figure I. The professional unit in the change system is found within a human setting. The agriculturalist or engineer may have a wife or husband who may become ill, for example, and materially change the interaction. And these human beings function in an administrative setting. Like the physicians in a hospital or the professors in a university, those whose specialization is directly related to producing the primary outputs of an organization, or a system of organizations, are usually supported by an administrative group.

The administrators are necessary if the professionals are to function efficiently and effectively. The professionals, however, are not "free" to exercise their "professional" judgments without taking into consideration the constrictions that may be applied to the situation by the administrators.

Similarly, both professional and administrative personnel operate in a larger socio-economic-political milieu, which exerts "political" influence upon them. For example, a technical assistance team may have to bring in large quantities of inappropriate equipment, perhaps against its professional judgement, because political pressure has been successfully applied.

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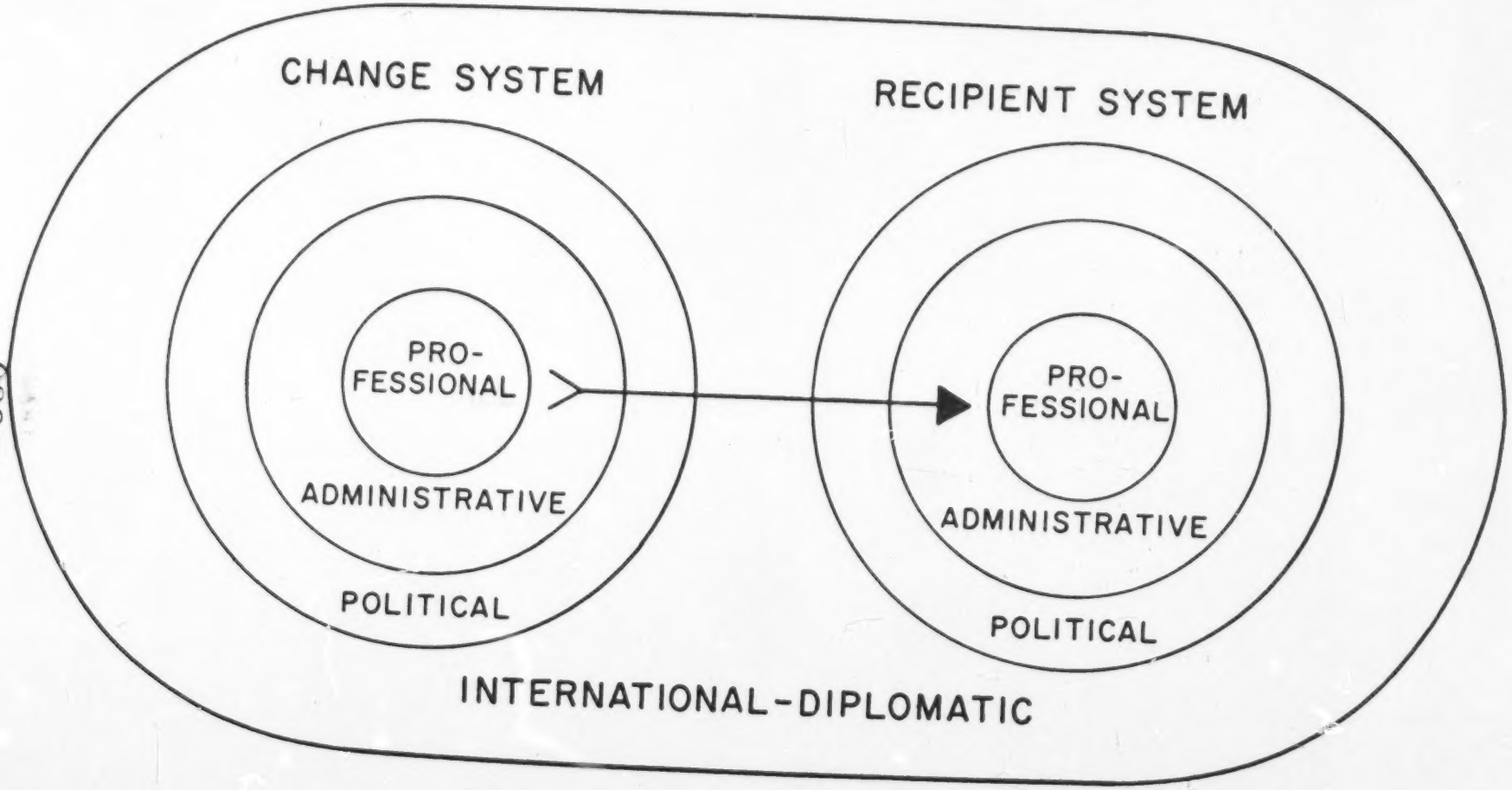
FIGURE I
GENERAL MODEL OF INTERNATIONAL INTERVENTION

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Beyond these, both the donor system and the recipient system are surrounded by an international diplomatic milieu that also affects their interaction. For example, the professional members of a technical assistance team may "have to" facilitate the construction of a large building as part of a project because teams from other countries are doing similar things, regardless of the professional merits of such an activity.

Thus, while it is easy enough to recommend the strategy of explore and discover rather than the strategy of technical assistance and institution building, it would be unfair to judge past efforts at international intervention on purely professional merits. When errors have been made in the direction of too much "packaged" technical assistance or institutional transfer, rather than exploration and discovery, it may well have been based on a political or diplomatic rationale, quite independent from the professional strategy of intervention.

Third Culture Enclaves

One aspect of the difficulty is that both the donor system and the recipient system tend to have within them small enclaves of persons who operate in the inter-system arena, as is illustrated in Figure II. These have been referred to as persons in the "third culture."[3]

In the recipient system such an enclave tends to be a small, elite, internationally-oriented group. They often represent the wealth and the power of their own country, have been educated abroad, and tend to live in surroundings very similar to those of the donor systems.

In the donor system, these are people who have lived and worked in the recipient systems, traveled extensively, and may interact as much or more abroad as they do at home.

Any such pattern of human interaction suggests that while persons of the third culture, from each of any two societies so involved with each other, may share certain values, be interested in and able to communicate with each other, and develop increasing understanding of each other as time goes by, each will tend to have less and less understanding of the system he represents as the process continues. Thus, those members of the international-elite enclave in many of the so-called developing countries have little understanding of "what life is really like" in the more rural and remote parts of their own countries. Conversely, those members of the third culture in donor system countries are likely to find themselves reflecting their own society as it was some years ago, rather than as it is now, and being so little understood at home that their sources of funds are continually in jeopardy.

Thus, rather than looking at interaction between one system (A) and another system (B), it is probably more appropriate to consider the interaction between a component of system A and a component of system B, which are labeled $A_1$ and $B_1$. These two inter-system enclaves, which usually supply the membership for "explore and discover" teams, need to interact. In addition, there is also need for interaction between the enclave and the larger society in both cases. Thus, if $A_1$ has simultaneous interaction with A and with $B_1$ and if $B_1$ has similar interactions with B and with $A_1$, then the possibility that explorers can actually discover will be increased greatly.

FIGURE II
THE THIRD CULTURE ENCLAVE
($A_1$ and $B_1$)

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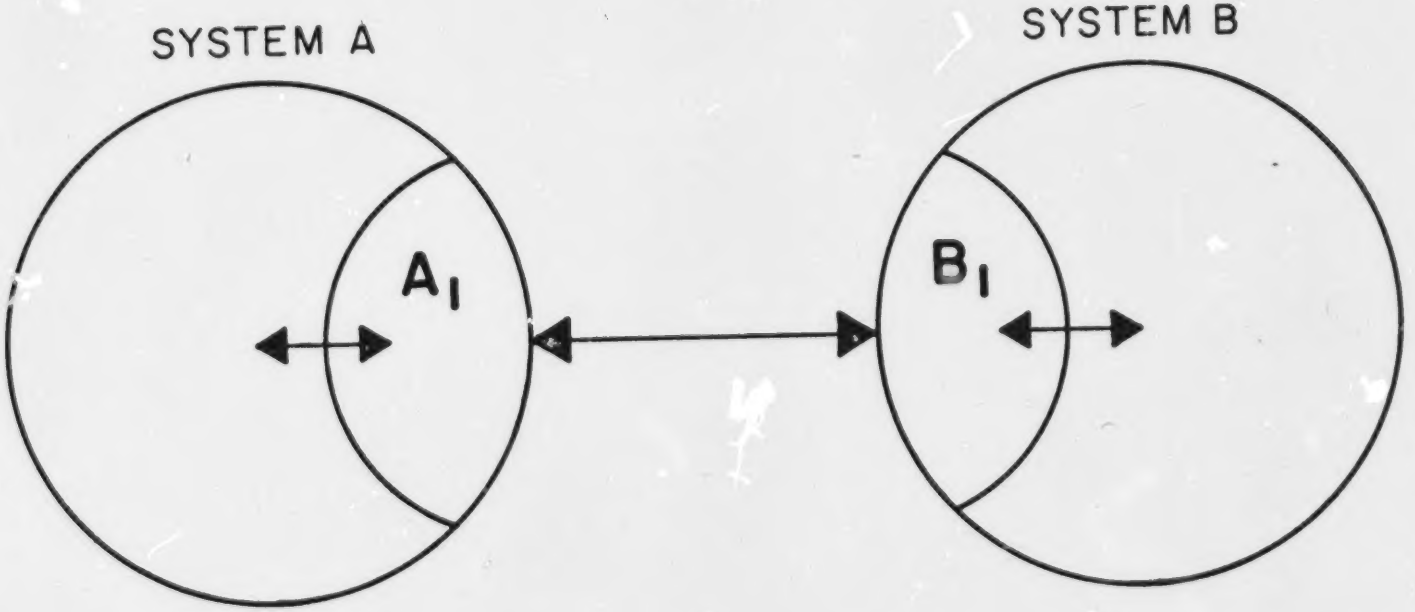


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The Superiority Syndrome

One of the negative aspects of man's attempt to help his fellows and do the "right thing" for mankind might be labeled the superiority syndrome. This set of phenomena deals with the tendency of aid-givers to feel superior to, and to look down upon, the aid receivers. As a result, aid-givers pay less attention to the feelings and the opinions of the receivers and are increasingly misguided by their own preconceptions.

The syndrome usually develops among the personnel of any foreign mission in any host country. They tend to forget all of the negative aspects of their home situations; they tend to see and magnify all of the negative aspects of the local situation. This is accentuated by their ignorance of and failure to understand the local situation. It is almost inescapable that an "up-down" form of interaction results.

From the recipient perspective, the superiority syndrome spawns resentment and suspicion. In many ways the difference between the "haves" and the "have nots" within any one society is similar to the difference among societies. Referring to Figure II, $B_1$ feels and acts superior to the remainder of system B, just as $A_1$ may feel and act superior to $B_1$. These relationships breed resentment; and the "haves" tend to blame the "have nots" for their own plight and the "have nots" blame the "haves" for their plight, both within and between nations.

The superiority syndrome generates a relationship wherein the "up," or donor system, fails to recognize the sovereignty of the "down" or recipient.

The right to choose among various would-be donors, among various types of aid, or among different assistance strategies belongs, ultimately, to the receiver. Just as any individual farmer at a non-formal education demonstration or any student in a lecture class or any reader of this paper has the right to receive or not, there is an inviolate sovereignty of the recipient system.

In developing a new conceptual framework, the assumption is that each side always gives something and each side always gains something. Thus, the "donor-recipient" model is less than desirable. Even the model of a delivery system and an acquisition system[4]--which hopefully neutralizes the "superiority syndrome" built into the donor-recipient approach--is subject to the pernicious infections of the syndrome.

In building a new model, the analogy of organic transplants in a human body may be helpful in illustrating problems of inter-system communications. Modern medicine has developed technology for transplanting organs from one body into another. However, the basic assumption is always that the body in need already had such organs. If there is any way that the present organ can be strengthened or helped to fulfill its function, this is the desirable alternative. It is only when the organ fails to fulfill its function, that the transplanting of a foreign organ is acceptable. Even then, the basic assumption is that the body will reject the transplant. A strategy has to be developed for overcoming this rejection; otherwise, the function will not be performed by the rejected organ, and the body will die.

Any intersystem interaction model could take into consideration that the transplant of a foreign system of institutions is often similarly rejected.

In some situations, careful attention to the needs, the interests, the customs, the belief, and other aspects of the host system may overcome the rejection in time, so that the transplant can function as an accepted part of the system. More likely, the transplant will either be rejected entirely, and therefore, disappear over time, or the transplant will be sufficiently modified by the host system that it becomes acceptable.

Iterative Reciprocity

Two basic problems with efforts at international interaction have been discussed above. One is the superiority syndrome, which carries with it the subordinate-superordinate relationship and is increasingly rejected by sovereign recipient systems. The other is the frustration stemming from the extreme difficulty of inter-system understanding and the walls of separation built around international enclaves within each system.

A doctrine of reciprocity may overcome these difficulties. Reciprocity requires both parties to an international interaction to look at the situation in terms of a cost-benefit ratio. If both parties consider their cost-benefit ratio acceptable, they are less likely to suspect each other of taking unfair advantage. Even when it appears that one system is clearly the donor and the other clearly the recipient, as in a typical educational assistance program in an effort to meet national manpower needs, there is always reciprocity. Where there is recognized reciprocity, the superiority syndrome will tend to be minimized.

Intercultural interactions governed by a doctrine of reciprocity are still subject to problems in inter-system understanding. As illustrated in Figure III (the iteration model) when system X interacts with system Y,

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FIGURE III
THE ITERATION MODEL

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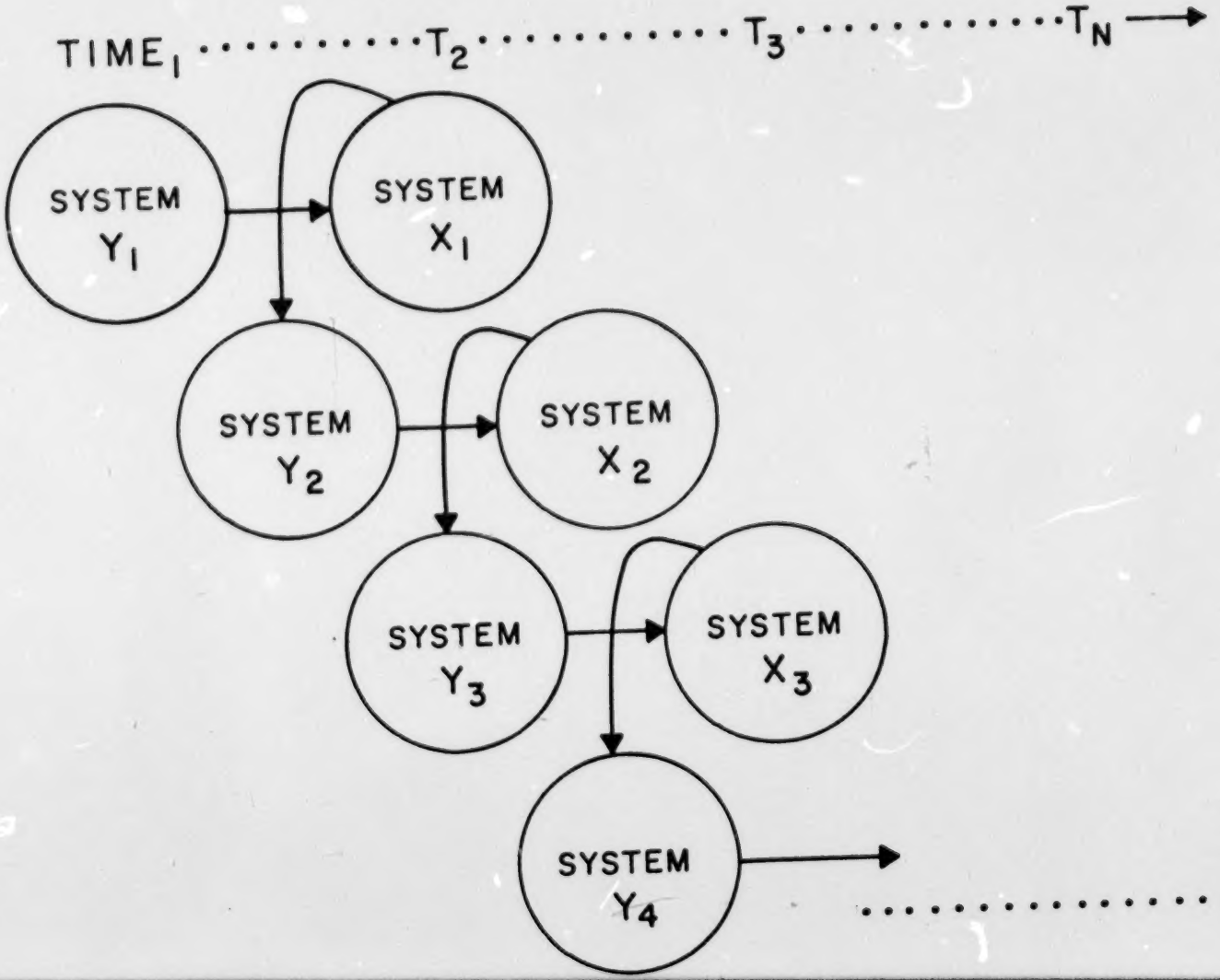

the interaction has an effect on both systems. Next time, system X is slightly different from what it was the first time, as is system Y. Thus, as time goes by, system X changes and system Y changes. Among the changes on both sides should be increased inter-system understanding. Iterative transactions between any two systems may lead to better understanding and communication, and thus the greater the chance that the substance of these transactions will be appropriate in light of the needs and the interests of humanity within the two systems.

The above suggests a pattern of iterative reciprocity. That is, two systems interact on the basis of equality. (See Figure IV.) Each expects the interaction to cost something and each expects to gain something from it. Over time, the iteration continuously modifies the nature of both systems and of the interaction between them. The more iterations, the more appropriate for both systems the transactions are likely to be. Reciprocity in value suggests continuous growth in benefit to each participant and continuous reduction in the cost.

In this sense, reciprocity does not require exact exchange of goods or ideas that have equal value in some inter-system market place. For example, food grains may be exchanged for raw metals. So long as there is some benefit for each system, there can be reciprocity. To the extent that the two systems can build enduring linkages between themselves, iterative reciprocity may be more appropriate in the future than "international assistance" for and on behalf of either system.

FIGURE IV

ITERATIVE RECIPROCITY

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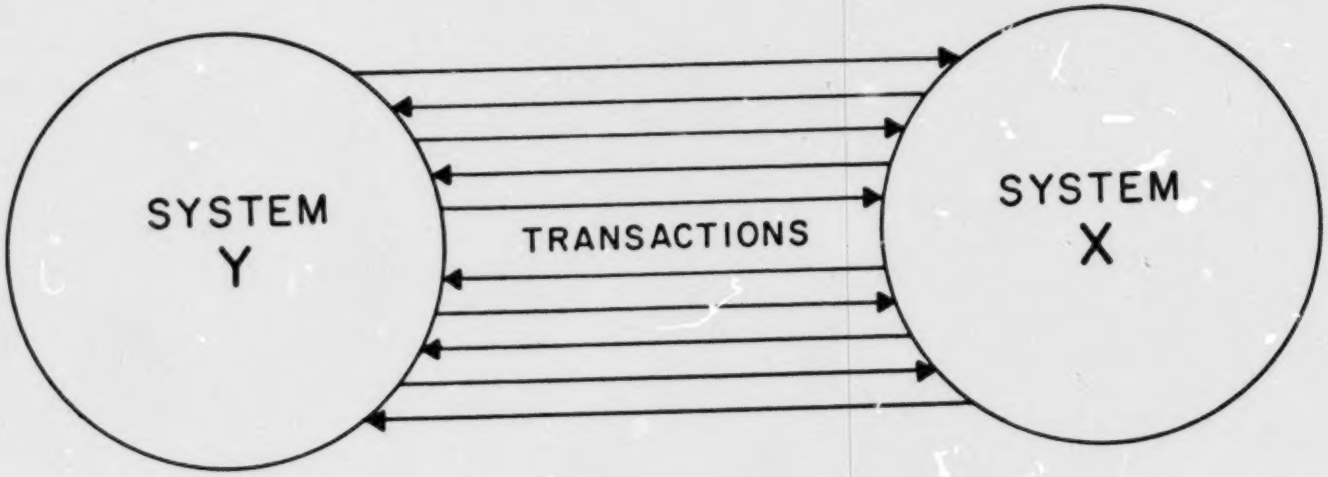


Social Benefit / Social Cost

Social Benefit / Social Cost

1. Robert Redfield, in "The Folk Society," *The American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 52, January, 1947, p. 293, defines a folk society as, "Small, isolated, non-literate, and homogeneous, with a strong sense of group solidarity."

2. Doctrine may be defined for our purposes as "an expression of what the organization stands for, what it hopes to achieve, and the styles of action it intends to use. Doctrine motivates men, and is an essential characteristic of any institution." See Milton J. Esman and Hans C. Blaise, "Institution Building Research: The Guiding Concepts," Inter-University Research Program in Institution-Building, University of Pittsburgh, February, 1966, p. 10-11.

3. For discussion of the "third culture" concept, see John Useem, Ruth Hill Useem, and John Donoghue, "Men in the Middle of the Third Culture: The Roles of American and Non-Western People in Cross-Cultural Administration," *Human Organization*, 22:169-179, Fall, 1963.

4. The term "acquisition system" has been used by Professor Edwin M. Bartee of the Graduate School of Management, Vanderbilt University, in the context of domestic community development.

## CHAPTER IX - INTERNATIONAL INTERACTIONS IN NON-FORMAL EDUCATION--SUMMARY AND SOME HYPOTHESES

As indicated in the chapters describing non-formal education, the very nature of this type of activity makes outside intervention extremely difficult. The more formal a system is, the easier it is for outsiders to interact with it. The less formal it is, the more difficult it is for outsiders to interact with it.

The discussion of non-formal education stressed the importance of reciprocity. It emphasized the alternating roles of teachers and learners in non-formal educational systems. The point was that learners tend to participate in non-formal education only to the extent that they see value in such participation. Opportunities to "teach" seem to enhance learning; opportunities to learn seem to enhance teaching; and the reciprocity seems to enhance the perceived value. While this phenomenon may be a characteristic of any educational system, teachers and learners can enter and depart from non-formal education with fewer penalties and less loss of "formal" reward than from formal education.

This tends to make the non-formal systems more elusive and less available for interaction with outside systems. Thus, individuals who approach a larger system with a goal of interacting with its non-formal education components may find greater difficulty than those who approach the system in order to interact with its formal education components.

Intersystem interactions of different types exhibit certain similarities. One kind of interaction is called education. Another kind of interaction is called intersystem cooperation--or sometimes international assistance or international technical cooperation. Both educational activity within a system, and international activity between systems, may be labeled as intersystem interactions. With regard to education, the "teacher" tends to represent an outsider to the system of "learners."

There is a tendency in both types of interaction--both education and international cooperation--to succumb to the "superiority syndrome." In both cases there is a tendency for the "teacher" or "donor" to assume that it knows what is good for the "learner" or "recipient" and therefore dominate decision-making in terms of what goals are to be achieved, and what means should be used to achieve those goals.

Further, there is a tendency in both cases for teachers and donors to overlook the opportunity for role exchange. Too frequently, teachers fail to organize their activity so that they periodically deliberately play learner roles. And there is a tendency for donors to act like they are the givers and not receivers of value in an international cooperation or international assistance activity. Donors tend not to realize the ever present reciprocity--and the fact that they are probably gaining more than they are giving--in one way or another--or they would not be participants in the interaction. The same may be said for learners and recipients. There is a tendency to rigidify these roles and not to move easily between teacher and learner roles or between donor and recipient roles.

Further, in both situations there is a tendency to transfer from rather than to modify substance. The teacher in formal education may require students to memorize the content of the syllabus by rote. Donors in technical cooperation tend to "force" the forms of the donor system upon the recipient system. The forms of an educational system are more easily transferred than the essence of that system: for example, the forms of health care delivery systems are easier to transmit than their doctrines and their genius. The forms of agricultural systems are more apt to be transferred than their essential rationality.

A simultaneous examination of these two types of interaction has suggested the disadvantage of rigidity in these roles. On the other hand, "successful" examples of both kinds of interaction tend to be characterized by reciprocity and by iteration of roles between teachers and learners; between donors and recipients.

The analysis of non-formal education suggested the following major components: Mission, doctrine, participants, program, resources, and channels. In evolving strategies for non-formal education, a path which involved exploration, planning, action, and the evaluation of results was postulated. For each step along the way, assessment of obstacles and resources was indicated. (See Chapter V for definitions.)

Similarly, with respect to intersystem interaction, the same components could be identified. That is, any intersystem interaction--and especially international technical cooperation, will also have such components as mission, doctrine, participants, program, resources, and channels or means for delivery. Thus, it is possible to "overlay" a strategy of intersystem interaction on top of smaller strategies of non-formal education within the systems involved.

An outsider may approach the system with a mission defined. Given such a mission, and assuming a posture of exploration and discovery, the "outsider" may examine various organizations which already exist within the nation-state. For each organization, the question could be asked as to how consistent the doctrine of that organization is with the mission of the outsider. Also, an assessment might be made of each organization in terms of the resources which it commands and the probability of its acquisition of additional resources. And, assessment can be made of the participation in the organization--both in terms of its clients and its staff personnel--again, to assess congruence with the mission.

Following such a strategic path, each organization which already exists can be compared with the other organizations which already exist in terms as to how likely it is that a particular organization will be able to achieve the mission. In addition to its ability, there is the question of how likely it is to be willing to take on the mission.

After the costs and the benefits to the outsider are weighed with regard to each organization--and its doctrine, its resources, and its participation--the organizations can be rank-ordered, and compared with potential new organizations which might be organized within the system for the purpose of achieving the mission.

Each step along this strategic path might well be characterized by attention to reciprocity. That is, each match between a mission and an organization can assess the potential costs and benefits to both, and make the joint decision as to whether or not to go ahead.

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The strategic path leads from the organizational decision to decisions regarding programs. Alternative programs can be assessed by the organization in terms of the extent to which:

(1) their goals are consistent with the doctrine of the organization;

(2) their goals are measurable;

(3) the goals are feasible;

(4) the participation is appropriate for goal achievement; and

(5) the resources are appropriate for goal achievement.

On the basis of such criteria, one program can be weighed against another, and the two of them compared with a third. Thus, alternative programs can be rank-ordered, and potential benefits weighed against potential costs.

For each program, the decisions of means will involve choice between the alternative channels which may be available for delivery. Each channel can be compared with each other channel in terms of such considerations as:

(1) its potential impact compared to its potential cost;

(2) its accessability with regard to participation;

(3) the ability of the organization to utilize the channel; and

(4) the consistency of use of such channel with the doctrine of the organization.

Thus, given a mission, an organization, a structure of participation, and certain resources--and having made a program decision--the strategic path leads finally to the choice among channels--or among groups of channels--for the achievement of program goals. See Diagram I for an outline of flow along such a strategic path.

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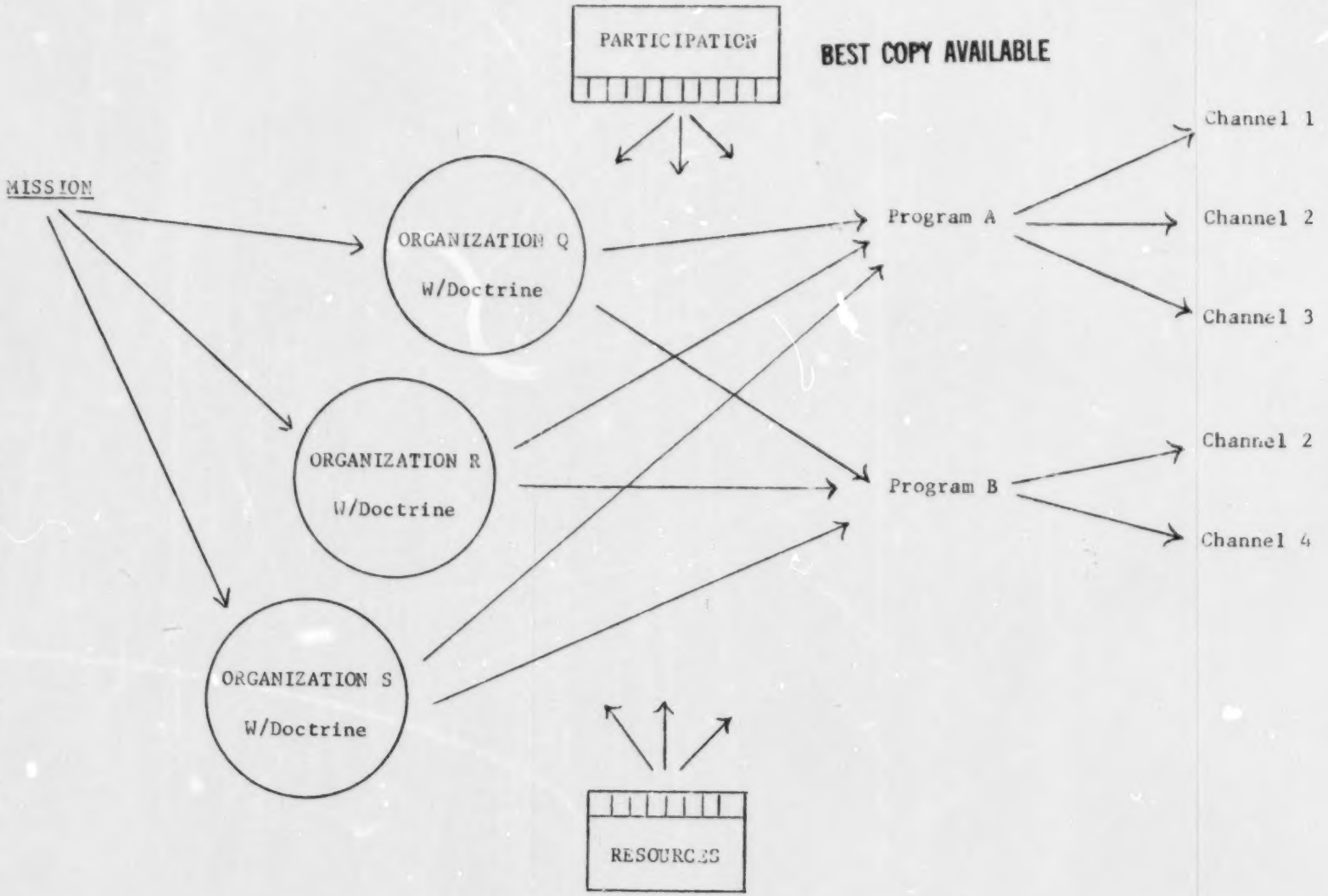


DIAGRAM I



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Following the principle of iterative reciprocity, as described in Chapter VIII, one must assume that many of the decisions made along the strategic path in the first instance will prove to be less than optimal. Thus, in the second set of iterations, choice of channels may be modified, choice of programs may be changed, or even choice of organizations shifted. It might be appropriate to make shifts in the participation and in the resources. Iterative reciprocity assumes continuous weighing of costs and benefits by all participants.

Thus, if an outside organization interacts with an inside system of non-formal education, the more flexible its early iterations, the greater the chance that later iterations will be appropriate. The tentative style of early interaction will make it feasible to continuously adjust choice of channels and choice of programs. Adjustments in the choice of organizations are likely to be more difficult, and errors in early decisions may lead to costs in excess of benefits. Thus, the "recipients" in a non-formal education system will be counted upon to "educate" the donors to such a system, so that the activities of the donors are more likely to be appropriate for continuity and achievement of the mission.

Assuming a system and a strategic path such as that described above, a series of hypotheses may be stated. These are certainly not principles at this stage--they are merely propositions stated so that they may be tested. To the extent that they tend to be true, they may be useful guides to action and aids to thinking. To the extent that further research relating to international interactions in non-formal education is carried out within the context of these hypotheses, their strength or weakness may be determined.

General Hypotheses

1. Any interaction between two systems will have costs and benefits to each system.

2. If an interaction between two systems is perceived by both systems as having both costs and benefits, that will tend to be viewed as a relationship of reciprocity.

3. The more iterations between two systems, the greater the chance that a particular interaction will be perceived by both systems as reciprocal.

4. If a potential interaction between two systems is perceived by one system to have benefits to it greater than the costs to it, then it will tend to participate in the interaction.

5. If a potential interaction between two systems is perceived by one system to have costs to it greater than the benefits to it, then it will tend not to participate in the interaction.

6. Two interacting systems which modify the nature of their interactions over time will tend to change in the direction of interactions with greater benefits to each system and less costs to each system.

7. In a series of interactions between two systems, earlier interactions will tend to have higher costs and lower benefits than later interactions.

8. Interactions between two systems which are planned on the basis of the human, administrative, political, and diplomatic dimensions of such interactions, as well as their professional dimensions, will tend to have greater benefits and persist over longer time periods than those which are planned only on the basis of professional dimensions.

9. Human constraints tend to limit the professional aspects of inter-system interactions.

10. Administrative constraints tend to limit the professional aspects of inter-system interactions.

11. Political constraints tend to limit the professional aspects of inter-system interactions.

12. Diplomatic (inter-system milieu) constraints tend to limit professional aspects of inter-system interactions.

13. Inter-system interactions are more likely to be appropriate (persist over time; exhibit reciprocity; have benefits to both sides which exceed costs) to the extent that they are based on characteristics of each system beyond the inter-system enclaves (third culture groups).

14. Innovations introduced into any system through interaction with a second system will tend to be rejected by the first system.

15. Individuals and the social system of which they are components tend to exhibit "sovereignty" with respect to interactions initiated by other individuals or other social systems.

16. The "superiority syndrome" is less likely to be exhibited in inter-system interactions characterized by recognized reciprocity than in interactions where reciprocity is not recognized.

17. Individuals from one system in temporary residence within a second system tend to develop a "superiority syndrome."

18. A series of iterative interactions between two systems over time will tend to modify the nature of both systems and the interactions between them.

19. Assuming that interactions between two systems involve particular actions initiated by each system, if each system initiates then the interaction will be more appropriate than if one system tends to do the initiating.

20. If initial interactions between two systems are limited to minor modifications of the two systems, then there will tend to be a greater chance of continued interaction.

21. As two systems interact, the more flexible their early iterations, the greater the chance that later iterations will be appropriate.

22. The more formal a system tends to be, the easier it is for another system to interact with it; the more informal a system tends to be, the more difficult it is for another system to interact with it.

23. It tends to be more difficult for actors from outside a system to interact with non-formal education components than with formal education components.

24. Iterative reciprocity in interactions between non-formal educational systems tends to enhance development of all of the systems involved.

25. The more roles become rigid in any interaction between two systems, the greater the tendency that interaction will tend to become less appropriate over time.

26. Joint decisions based on reciprocity will tend to enhance interaction between two systems more than unilateral decisions.

27. Innovations introduced into any system through interaction with a second system will tend to be initially accepted by small units (individuals or groups) of the first system.

28. The willingness and ability of any system to accept change tends to be directly related to the volume of its communication with other systems.

Mission and Program

29. The extent to which the goals of any interaction between two systems will be achieved tends to be inversely related to the number of those goals.

30. The extent to which the goals of any interaction between two systems will be achieved tends to be directly related to the extent to which various cultural factors are taken into consideration in planning that interaction.

31. The extent to which the goals of any interaction between two systems will be achieved tends to be directly related to the extent to which they are clearly understood by those responsible for carrying out the interaction.

32. The extent to which the goals of any interaction between two systems will be achieved tends to be directly related to the extent to which those affected by the interaction have participated in establishing those goals.

33. The extent to which the goals of any interaction between two systems will be achieved tends to be directly related to the extent to which the planning process is continuous (ends and means continuously reevaluated and modified).

34. The effectiveness of any communication between any two systems tends to vary directly with the degree to which treatments of messages are constructed according to:

a. the existing attitudes of the receivers

b. the level of literacy of the receivers

c. the cultural and subcultural beliefs of the receivers

d. the group and role positions of the receivers

e. the past experiences of the receivers.

Planning of Non-Formal Education

35. The cycle of NFE program development may include such aspects as:

- situational analysis
- identification of problems (opportunities)
- establishment of goals (targets)
- analysis of barriers (why haven't goals been achieved already?)
- finding appropriate message
- designating audience(s) for each message
- selecting best combination of channels to carry message(s) to audience(s)
- designating treatments for each message which will achieve the greatest impact
- operating (sending appropriate treated messages via selected channels to designated audience(s)
- evaluating extent to which goals have been achieved
- situational analysis
- identification of problems (opportunities)
- etc. . . . THE PROCESS IS CONTINUOUS

Organization

36. In the planning and operationalizing of any interaction between two systems, the use of already existing organizational structures, rather than the creation of new structures, will tend to reduce resistance (to that interaction).

37. The more formal an organization within a system tends to be, the greater the ease of interaction with organizations from other systems.

38. Errors in early decisions regarding the organizations to be involved in any inter-system interaction will tend to lead to cost in excess of benefits.

39. The more utilitarian the doctrine of one system is perceived to be by another system, the greater the probability of iterative reciprocity between the two systems.

40. If the doctrine of a system is negotiable, then that doctrine will tend to facilitate interaction with another system.

41. As systems (institutions, organizations) become older, their doctrines tend to have fewer negotiable points.

Participation

42. The "success" of any interaction between two systems tends to be directly related to the extent to which the benefits of this interaction are immediate and obvious to the participants.

43. The success of any interaction between two systems is directly related to the degree to which those most directly affected by that interaction are involved in the actual decision-making process (relating to planning, organizing, staffing, and operating that interaction).

44. The more influence the participants of any interaction perceive that they have on that interaction, the more they will tend to participate in that interaction.

45. Human systems tend to include enclaves (sub-systems) of persons who operate in the inter-system arena (third culture).

46. The greater the rate of interaction of any individual outside of his/her own system, the less able the individual will tend to be to represent his/her own system.

47. The greater the rate of interaction of an individual outside of his/her own system, the more willing and able the individual will tend to be to change behavior patterns, and to bring innovations to his/her own system.

48. Individual actors in a system which is interacting with another system tend to over-estimate the benefits of the interaction to the other system and to over-estimate the costs of the interaction to their own system.

49. If the leaders of a given interaction between two systems have common interests, then these leaders will tend to facilitate that interaction.

50. The success of any interaction between two systems is directly related to the degree to which the various roles (responsibilities) of that interaction (such as administration, sponsorship, teaching, and learning) are combined, exchanged, and shared by the participants.

51. In any interaction between two systems, participants will tend to rigidify their roles over time.

52. Assuming that in non-formal education, teachers and learners exchange roles from time to time, the greater the frequency of role exchange, the greater the tendency for learning to proceed.

53. Teachers and learners tend to be able to enter and depart from non-formal education with fewer penalties than from formal education.

54. If teachers and learners are able to enter and depart from non-formal education with less loss of "formal" reward than from formal education, then they will tend to participate more readily in non-formal education.

55. Participation in non-formal education programs tends to be related directly to the perception of relevance on the part of the participants.

56. The "success" of any interaction between two systems tends to be directly related to the extent of personal contact between the members

of the two systems.

Resources

57. The more effective the exploration and discovery of resources within a system by participants from another system, the greater the tendency for obstacles to that interaction to be overcome.

58. In any interaction between two systems, the more reciprocal control of the resources available to that interaction, the greater the tendency that the interaction will be appropriate.

59. Early identification of both resources and obstacles will tend to facilitate interaction between two systems.

60. The continuous identification of both resources and obstacles throughout any interaction between two systems will tend to make that interaction more appropriate.

61. The use of both existing and potential resources in any inter-system interaction will tend to facilitate that interaction.

Channels

62. The use of certain communication channels in any interaction between two systems will tend to facilitate that interaction more than the use of other communication channels.

63. The use of different communication channels in any interaction between two systems will tend to produce different effects in those systems.

64. If early decisions regarding the choice of channels and the choice of program in any inter-system interaction are tentative, then it will tend to facilitate continuous adjustment of these choices during the interaction.

65. The more communication channels in parallel between a sender and a receiver (between two systems), the greater the chance that any particular message sent by the sender (one system) will be received by the audience (other system).

66. The more communication channels in series between two systems, the less the chance that any particular message sent from one system will be accurately perceived in the other.

67. The effectiveness of communication between any two systems tends to vary directly with the degree to which treatments of messages are constructed with symbols which have the same meaning for persons within each system.

68. The credibility of any message transmitted within a particular system will tend to be increased to the extent that existing communication channels within that system are utilized.

69. The cost of sending a message will tend to be decreased to the extent that existing communication channels within a particular system are utilized.

# L E X I C O N

# O F

# S P E C I A L  M E A N I N G S

Associated With Terms Utilized

In The Preceding Chapters

# LEXICON

ACCOUNTABILITY

Criteria chosen to evaluate the effectiveness of a teaching-learning process.

ACTION

Any effort (act of one system (or individual therein) directed to another system (or individual therein); a one-way direction

System A ——————→ System B

ADMINISTRATIVE

Arena where process of control of affairs is more important than content or nature of the affairs: emphasis is on management of execution of policy.

ADMISSION

Method and criteria of acceptance of a person or groups of individuals into a system.

APPROPRIATE

An appropriate interaction is one which will persist over time, exhibit reciprocity, and have benefits to both sides which exceed costs.

BELIEFS

Assertion of proposition; statement on grounds of authority or evidence.

BENEFIT

Goal perceived as advantageous by the interacting system.

CHANNEL

See page 25, Chapter IV.

COMMUNICATION

Process of transmitting and receiving messages via certain channel(s) in order to change specific behavior of a system. In another sense, it is the process of sharing meanings or referents for given symbol(s).

COMMUNICATION STRATEGY

See page 26, Chapter IV.

COST

Sacrifice of social material resources.

CULTURE

A composite of responses which have been accepted by a social group because they have been successful in solving problems; learned problem solutions.

DECISION-MAKING

A process of selecting a particular option.

DOCTRINE

See page 71, Chapter VII.

EDUCATION

A process by which the accumulated knowledge, skills, attitudes of a system are acquired by and transmitted to or within, and exchanged among its members or elements.

EDUCATION, NON-FORMAL

Any instance of knowledge, skills, attitudes transmission taking place outside the formal educational system.

EFFECTIVENESS

A measure of the extent of behavior change associated with a given educational experience.

EFFICIENCY

A measure of effectiveness compared with cost.

ENCLAVE, INTERSYSTEM

A group of individuals within a system who interact more frequently and consistently with elements outside their own system.

ENCULTURATION

Process of learning the patterns of typical behavior for a given people and assimilating their beliefs and practices.

ESSENCE

Refers to the inner functioning components of something, typically perceived only by an insider, as contrasted with its form.

EVALUATION

The process by means of which alternatives are compared, and judgements are made relating to the effectiveness and the efficiency of each in relation to the others.

EXPLORATION

The process by means of which an outsider discovers what exists within a system.

EXPLORE AND DISCOVER

A strategy designed to gain a wholistic, multidisciplinary understanding of how a given culture solves its problems of human survival.

FAMILY

A group of people who are related by kinship and/or who have shared experiences in their upbringing.

FIDELITY

A high-fidelity channel conveys meaning without changing it.

FORM(AL)

Refers to the apparent shape of something as perceived by an outsider, as contrasted with its essence.

GOALS

Any change in a situation which an individual or group intends to effect through planned action.

INTENT

Expressed goals toward which the actions of members of interacting systems are directed.

INTERACTION

Reciprocal action; a two-way direction.

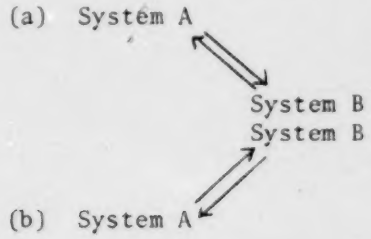
System A ⟸⟹ System B

TYPES OF INTERACTION

(1) Symmetrical (horizontal) -- interaction based on equality of position of the two interacting systems.

System A ⟸⟹ System B

(2) Asymmetrical (complimentary) -- interaction based on differences of position of the two interacting systems; one is more "up" and the other more "down"; two different but compatible systems.




ITERATIVE RECIPROCITY

A concept in which two or more systems (such as two individuals, two or more countries, or even two segments of the same population) repeatedly deal with one another or among themselves, during which period benefits and costs are negotiated and exchanged between or among the participating systems.

LATENT

Consequences not originally recognized or intended by the actors in the process of interaction.

LEADERSHIP

A set of attributes a given group of people regard in the evaluation of their member(s) whom they are willing to follow.

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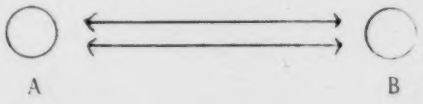
LEARNER

A participant in an interaction situation whose behavior patterns change (usually acquired knowledge, skills or attitudes) in the process.

LINKAGE

More than one channel between two components either within one system or between two systems.




MANAGEMENT

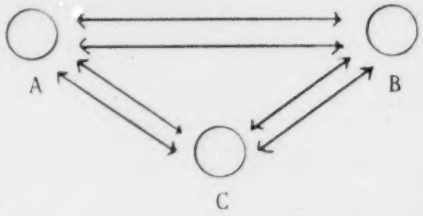
Personnel hired to administer an organizational system.

MISSION

See page 69, Chapter VII.

NETWORK

Series of channels or linkages between three or more components either within one system or between three or more systems.



NORMS

A set of attributes to which a society expects all its members to adhere.

OBJECTIVES, COVERT

Individual, group or institutional goals left unstated, at least officially.

OBJECTIVES, OVERT

Individual, group or institutional goals explicitly stated.

OBSTACLES

Those items, goods, ideas, people, organizations, physical or climatic conditions, etc., or lack of which will hinder motion toward a desirable goal--that is, the barriers which militate against the achievement of program goals.

OUTSIDERS

Individuals who are perceived by others within a system as having their primary identification outside of that system; in some other system.

PARTICIPATION

See page 74, Chapter VII.

PHILOSOPHY OF LIFE

A system of beliefs and values, organized or unorganized, consistent or inconsistent, that governs the general behavior of an individual.

PLANNING

Refers to the process of developing the design of something (an activity, program, organization, etc.) developed through the study of the past and the present in order to forecast the future, and on the basis of that forecast, to creatively establish alternatives, and then select among the alternatives.

POLITICAL

(1) Context in which pursuit and exercise of power is used to obtain goals.

(2) Institution of government which can use force legitimately to pursue and obtain public goals.

PRIORITY

That which is more important in relation to alternative possibilities under one set of circumstances.

PROFESSIONAL

Considerations in which knowledge/expertise of some department of learning is used in application to affairs of others.

PROGRAM

See page 78, Chapter VII.

RECIPROCITY

See page 99, Chapter VIII.

RESOURCES

Those items, goods, ideas, people, organizations, physical and climatic conditions, etc., that are actually or potentially available within and without the Existent Situation whose use or incorporation within a program will facilitate the surmounting of obstacles.

ROLE

A patterned sequence of learned actions performed by participants in interacting systems.

SOCIETY

A homogeneous group of people in discrete environmental conditions.

SPONSORSHIP

Organization or individual which funds a major portion of the cost of a program.

SUPERIORITY SYNDROME

See page 95, Chapter VIII.

SYSTEM

A group of components which are linked with each other, in which any change in any component affects the other components, any change in any linkage affects all of the components and the linkages, and in which the system as a whole may or may not be linked with other systems. A system could be a nation/state as a whole, the educational sector of a nation/state, an organization or institution within a nation/state (such as a school, a Ministry of Education, or a non-formal education system), a family, or a person.

TARGET/CHANGE SYSTEMS

Both Systems A and B are donors and recipients, neither being designated solely as "target" or "change."

TEACHER

A participant in an interaction situation whose role is characterized by responsibility for furthering learning among others.

TEACHING METHODS

Any procedure which may be employed in the transmission of knowledge and/or skills from one person to another or to a group of people.

THIRD CULTURE

A Third Culture is an intercultural or international system (or sub-system), the members of which have a common social heritage and shared understandings, values, and goals, as well as special concerns unique to their particular professional objectives. The general function of Third Culture is to link various societies, cultures, and nations.

Third Culture membership is made up of persons who have travelled, studied or worked and lived outside their own culture and, as a result, no longer completely identify with the traditional life perspective of their home culture.

TRANSACTION

Interaction about specific matter (material, product, object), energy (services, personnel, effort) and idea.